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The Study of State History With Illustrations from Michigan

BY CLAUDE S. LARZELERE, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, MT. PLEASANT, MICH.

The recent article in the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, copied from the "Independent," entitled "A Strange Visitor at School," helped to strengthen a lurking suspicion that I had had that the study of local and State history is too much neglected in our schools.

Several questions will at once arise in the mind of the teacher who is interested in the subject. Has local and State history educational value? Has it interest for boys and girls, and, if so, at what age? Where can suitable material be obtained? And how can time for it be found?

While it is true that, so far as government is concerned, the individual States are playing a relatively less and less important rôle and that nationalism is growing even under a Democratic administration, it is not desirable, it seems to me, that State pride should be lost or that interest in the neighborhood should not be stimulated. It is rather unfortunate that voters should be more interested in the election of a president than in that of a governor or a mayor. The local health officer more vitally affects our everyday life than the Secretary of State, and the enforcement of the truancy law is of greater importance than the Mexican question. There is not much danger of an undue development of provincialism in these days.

The study of local history is good for the development of the historical spirit. By its study the pupil can easily be made to see how institutions have developed, how present conditions have grown out of the past. He can be brought face to face with historical material. He can make use of the sources in their most valuable and interesting form. He can gain experience in investigation and the collection of material and "obtain the best training that history has for him in accuracy, the nice weighing of evidence, the sympathetic interpretation of the past."

In the next place, through the study of local and State history, the pupil may be led to understand and interpret more easily and fully historical events and movements of a more general character. For example, the life of the early settlers in the pupil's town or county will be typical of pioneer life in general; the movement of people into the pupil's vicinity will illustrate well the general westward movement of population; the varieties of nationality in the school or community will show the composite character of the population of the United States.

To have its greatest educational value, local and State history should not be isolated, but should be connected with and put into the proper relationship to the more general history of the country.

There is much in the history of any State, certainly in that of Michigan, that can be made of interest and profit to children of school age. In fact, there is an abundance of material that is suitable for children in the elementary school, for pupils in the high school, and even for students in the college and university.

What child in the lower grades, at that age when myths strongly appeal to him and are of value to him, would not be interested in the many Indian legends connected with various parts of the State? Take this one, for example, which accounts for the islands in the St. Clair and Detroit Rivers:

Sleeping Bear, a great manitou, who lived on the point of land named after him on the eastern shore of Lake Michigan, had a daughter of such beauty that he was afraid she would be stolen. He, therefore, put her into a box which he sank in the lake, tying it with a long rope to a stake on the shore. Every day the father would draw the box to shore and feed and caress his child.

The South Wind was passing one day while the maiden was upon the shore and he tarried to woo her. While he stayed, the beautiful Indian summer prevailed throughout the region. But the North Wind and the West Wind also heard of the beautiful girl and they, too, came to woo her. A fierce rivalry soon arose among the winds which resulted in a terrible storm. So violent was the tempest that the rope holding the box which contained the maiden was broken and the box floated down to the lodge of the Prophet, the Keeper of the Gates of the Lakes, who lived at the outlet of Lake Huron, who made her his bride.

Sleeping Bear was angry at this and caused a mighty tempest to arise which swept away the lodge of the Prophet and the land on which it stood. Out of the land thus carried away were formed the numerous islands which may be seen in the St. Clair and Detroit Rivers. The Prophet was drowned and buried beneath Peche Island, to which the Ottawa warriors used to resort in order to consult his spirit.

The box in which the maiden had lived was broken up and out of its fragments was formed Belle Isle,

upon which the beauty lived forever after. Her father, in order to guard her and prevent any further trouble, placed many rattlesnakes upon the island as her guardians to keep off all intruders.

The early French explorers, stimulated by the sight of pieces of copper and by stories told by the Indians, were anxious to find the sources of supply. The Indians doubtless knew where the copper beds were located on Isle Royal and on the southern shore of Lake Superior, but they were loth to give information on the subject as they were superstitious about the matter, believing that the manitous, or spirits, guarded the copper deposits and would punish them if they revealed their location to the white men.

In these days when copper is such an important product and when strikes in the copper country occupy so much space in the newspapers, the following legend might be of interest: The Indians told the Frenchmen that copper had first been discovered by four hunters, who had landed one day on an island in the northern part of the lake. Desiring to cook their food, they placed it in some water in a vessel made of bark, and, according to their custom, gathered stones and, after heating them red hot, dropped them into the dish of water. After awhile they noticed that the stones were composed of pure copper. As soon as they had eaten, they hastened to their canoe to set out, as they were afraid of the hares and lynxes, which grew as large as dogs on this island, and which, they were afraid, would eat up their food and perhaps their canoe also.

They gathered a few of the wonderful stones to take with them; but hardly had they left the island when a deep voice like thunder was heard over the waves, "Who are these thieves who steal the toys of my children?" It was the powerful manitou of the lake calling to them. The hunters hastened away as fast as they could paddle. Three of them died before they reached land, while the fourth lived only long enough to get back to his village and tell of their adventure. The island upon which they had found the strange metal had no foundation, according to the Indians, but floated about with the movement of the winds and waves. No one had dared to land on its shores since the four hunters were there because of the wrath of the manitou.

This, of course, is not history, but such legends may well pave the way with young children for history stories, which may be supplied in abundance from the history of any State.

Can you imagine that a child would not be interested in the story of the two priests, Dollier and Galinee, who pushed up the Detroit River in their birch-bark canoes and landed one day, in 1670, near the place where Detroit now stands? Here they found a large stone roughly resembling a human figure. The Indians had daubed it with red paint and worshipped it as a manitou. About it were scattered offerings of tobacco, maple sugar, and different kinds of food. This idol was held in great veneration by the savages. They believed that it was his voice that they heard when the winds blew

over the Lakes, and that he controlled the winds and caused them to blow or not to blow as he wished.

In some way the priests connected this device of the Devil, as they considered it, with misfortune which had befallen them. They believed that it stood in the way of carrying Christianity to the heathen. "After the loss of our altar service," wrote Galinee, "and the hunger we had suffered, there was not a man of us who was not filled with hatred against this false deity. I devoted one of my axes to breaking him in pieces; and then, having fastened our canoes side by side, we carried the largest piece to the middle of the river, and threw it, with all the rest, into the water, that he might never be heard of again. God rewarded us immediately for this good action, for we killed a deer and a bear that same day."

The Indians had a legend that after the missionaries had departed, a band of Red Men arrived to place their offerings at the foot of the idol. They could find only small pieces of it scattered about. These they carefully collected and placed in their canoes. As they were about to depart, they heard a deep voice sounding over the water which directed them to the place where the manitou had taken refuge upon what is now called Belle Isle. Here they were told to scatter the fragments of the idol. No sooner was it done than the pieces of stone were changed into rattlesnakes, which were to be sentinels to guard the home of the manitou from the invasion of the white man.

At the age when children are hungry for stories of adventure, what would please them better than accounts of the doings of French explorers, missionaries, fur traders, and coureurs de bois in the region of the Great Lakes? Marquette, LaSalle, and Cadillac, are as attractive heroes and of as much historical importance to people in the Old Northwest as Captain John Smith, Miles Standish, or William Penn.

Would not some "punch" be added to the study of the transfer of French territory to the English at the close of the French and Indian War, by reading how Major Rogers took possession of Detroit in the name of his Britannic Majesty?

Rogers was one of the most noted Indian fighters of those days. This description of him would catch the interest of the boys at once: "He wore a close-fitting jacket, a warm cap, coarse woolen trousers, leggings, and moccasins. A hatchet was thrust into his belt, a powder-horn hung at his side, a long, keen hunting-knife, and a trusty musket completed his armament; and a blanket and a knapsack stuffed with bread and raw salt pork, together with a flask of spirits, made up his outfit. He could speak to the Indian or the Frenchman in a language they could understand; he knew every sign of the forest, every wile of his foes, and repeatedly his bravery and coolness had brought him safely through the most critical situation. He lifted a scalp with as little compunction as did any Indian, and counted it the most successful warfare to creep into an Indian encampment at night, to set fire to the lodges, and to

make his escape by the light of the flames, with the screams of the doomed savages rejoicing in his ears." (Moore, *The Northwest Under Three Flags*, 103.)

At the head of his "Rangers," famous for the part they had taken in Indian warfare, Rogers drew near to Detroit and sent a messenger to ask for its surrender. The French commander was disposed to resist at first and he tried to stir up the Indians against the English. He even put upon the flag-staff a wooden image of Rogers' head, upon which was perched a crow, to represent himself, scratching out the brains of the British leader.

Convinced, however, by a letter from the French governor in Canada which was sent to him by Rogers that the French cause was hopeless, and finding that the Indians would not fight on his side, the commander surrendered on the 29th of November, 1760. His soldiers were marched out upon the plain surrounding the fort, where they laid down their arms, while the Indians jeered in derision, tauntingly shouting that Rogers must be the crow and the French commander the victim. The lilies of France, which had been floating over Detroit since 1701, were hauled down from the flag-staff of Fort Pontchartrain and the red cross of St. George was raised in their place.

For the boy in the blood-and-thunder stage what a galaxy of good stories are furnished by Pontiac's "Conspiracy." These, as told by Parkman, might well be used to supplant the "penny-dreadful" and "nickel-library" which the boy will read at this age unless something better is given him. Hamilton, "the hair-buyer," and his capture by George Rogers Clark, the defeat of St. Clair and the victories of Wayne, Hull's surrender, the battle of the Raisin River, Perry's victory, and Tecumseh, furnish more material of the same kind.

How little do the graduates of Michigan schools realize that the State in which they live was for so long a part of New France and that it had a narrow escape from remaining a part of Canada! We do teach that the British held several forts in the Northwest long after the treaty of 1783 and that Jay's treaty secured their surrender. But how much more real would this seem to the pupils if they could have placed before them the following picture of the raising of the stars and stripes for the first time above Detroit, as given by a historian of the old Northwest:

"Sailing up to the great wooden wharf," the detachment of American soldiers that had been sent for the purpose "disembarked and marched up one of the narrow, unpaved streets, with its footway of squared logs laid transversely, thence through one of the two gates on the water side of the strong stockade, and through the town and up the slope" to the fort that had been built by the British when it was feared that George Rogers Clark would attack Detroit.

"As the troops passed up the street, crowds of barefooted Frenchmen greeted them in a language they did not understand, and beves of dark-eyed French girls gazed demurely from under the wide

brims of their straw hats, anxious to discover whether the homespun-clad newcomers were fitted to take the place of the gorgeous-hued soldiers and sailors whom the fate of war" had sent away. Nor were Indians wanting; old squaws leading their daughters, leered at the soldiers; chiefs and warriors of many tribes, hideous in their paint and more hideous in the wounds received in drunken orgies, moved about with what dignity they could command, or sat in the sun smoking their stone pipes, waiting for General Wabanz (General To-morrow) to distribute the presents he was ever promising and never bestowing.

"At the hour of noon the last of England's troops made their way to the ramparts, and, loosing the halyards, the flag that for thirty-four years had floated over the town of Cadillac's foundation dropped slowly to the ground. While the British soldiers gathered up the dishonored ensign, eager Americans bent the Stars and Stripes, and as the joyous folds of the beautiful banner streamed out on the July breeze a cheer went up from the little band of United States soldiers, whose feet at last trod the soil made theirs by the conquest of Clark, seventeen years before." (Moore, *The Northwest Under Three Flags*, 373-4.)

It might add interest and value to the discussion of the invention of the steamboat and its effect upon our industrial and social history to call attention to the first steamboat upon Lake Erie, the "Walk-in-the-Water," bringing in such incidents as that it was not powerful enough to get out into Lake Erie against the current of Niagara River, where it was built, and so was hauled out by sixteen yoke of oxen, a "horned breeze" as it was called; and that the Indians had been told "that a great ship drawn by sturgeons was to make its appearance in the Detroit River, and when the steamer glided up the stream without any visible means of progress, the red men swarmed along the shore and filled the air with their noisy shouts of wonder," and when it blew off steam, many of them ran off to the woods greatly frightened. A topic worthy of investigation might be the effect of the invention of the steamboat upon the settlement and development of the region about the Great Lakes. It would also be worth while to compare the "Walk-in-the-Water" with the giant boats of the Lakes today and show the importance of the traffic which they carry on.

How boys and girls love a hero! And how they would admire the heroism of Lewis Cass as shown in the following incident, and how much light would be thrown upon the character of the Indians and upon their relation to the British and to the Americans by it! Cass had gone to the "Soo" to obtain possession of a tract of land which had formerly been granted to the French and which the Indians had acknowledged by treaty to belong now to the Americans. "The braves evidently restless and out of humor," writes Professor McLaughlin, "assembled to meet the Americans. Arrayed in their best attire, and many of them adorned with British medals, they seated themselves with even more than their wonted

solemnity and dignity, and prepared to hear what Governor Cass desired. At first pretending not to know of any French grants, they finally intimated that our government might be permitted to occupy the place if we did not use it as a military station. The governor, perceiving that their independence and boldness verged on impudence and menace, answered decisively that as surely as the 'rising sun would set, so surely would there be an American garrison sent to that point, whether they received the grant or not.' The excitement which had been ready to break forth now displayed itself. The chiefs disputed among themselves, some evidently counseling moderation, others favoring hostilities. A tall and stately-looking chieftain, dressed in a British uniform with epaulets, lost patience with moderation and delay. Striking his spear into the ground, he drew it forth again, and, kicking away the presents that lay scattered about, strode in high dudgeon out of the assembly.

"The Indian camp was on a small hill a few hundred yards from that of the Americans. The dissatisfied chiefs went directly to their lodges, and in a moment a British flag was flying in the very faces of the little company of white men. The soldiers were at once ordered under arms. Every one expected an immediate attack, for the Indians, greatly outnumbering the Americans, had not disguised their insolence and contempt. In an instant Governor Cass took his resolution. Rejecting the offers of those who volunteered to accompany him, with no weapon in his hands and only his interpreter beside him, he walked straight to the middle of the Indian camp, tore down the British flag, and trampled it under his feet. Then addressing the astonished and even panic-stricken braves, he warned them that two flags of different nations could not fly over the same territory, and should they raise any but the American flag, the United States would put its strong foot upon them and crush them. He then turned upon his heel and walked back to his own tent, carrying the British ensign with him. An hour of indecision among the Indians ensued. Their camp was quickly cleared of women and children, an indication that a battle was in immediate prospect. The Americans, looking to their guns, listened for the war-whoop and awaited attack. But the intrepidity of Governor Cass had struck the Indians with amazement. It showed a rare knowledge of Indian character, of which his own companions had not dreamed. Subdued by the boldness and decision of this action, the hostile chiefs forgot their swaggering confidence, and in a few hours signed the treaty which had been offered them."

We talk much in general terms in our American history classes about the western movement of population. All too seldom do we take actual typical cases of emigrants moving to the West by way of the Erie Canal and the Great Lakes, by the Cumberland Road and the Ohio River, or by other routes, bringing out the actual life on the road. By the study of the early settlement of our State we may often catch the spirit and enthusiasm of this westward movement in a way

that cannot be done by a general treatment of the subject.

For instance, "By 1837," says a writer, "it seemed as if all New England were coming to the State [of Michigan]. The fever for emigration pervaded the whole region from Rhode Island to Vermont, and every one seemed to have adopted for his own the popular song, 'Michiganiana.' The first verse runs thus:

"Come, all ye Yankee farmers, who wish to change your lot,
Who've spunk enough to travel beyond your native spot,
And leave behind the village where Pa and Ma do stay,
Come follow me and settle in Michiganiana,—
Yea, yea, yea, in Michiganiana!"

No wonder that settlers poured into our territory when its praises were sung in this fashion:

"Know ye the land to the emigrant dear,
Where the wild flower is blooming one-half the year;
Know ye the land of the billow and breeze,
That is pois'd, like an isle, amid fresh-water seas;
Whose forests are ample, whose prairies are fine,
Whose soil is productive, whose climate benign?
Remote from extremes—neither torrid nor cold,
'Tis the land of the sickle, the plough, and the fold;
'Tis a region no eye e'er forgets or mistakes,
'Tis the land for improvement—the land of the lakes.

"To you, then, I turn—and I turn without fears,
Ye hardy explorers, ye bold pioneers;
Ye vot'ries of Ceres, with industry blest,
Whose hopes are still high, and whose course is still west;
Ye men of New England—ye emigrant race,
Who meditate change, and are scanning the place;
Who dig and who delve, on estates not your own;
Where an acre of land is an acre of stone;
Oh, quit your cold townships of granite, or brakes,
And hie with delight to the land of the lakes!"

Or who could resist this siren song:

"My eastern friends who wish to find
A country that will suit your mind,
Where comforts all are near at hand,
Had better come to Michigan.

"Here is the place to live at ease,
To work or play, just as you please;
With little prudence any man
Can soon get rich in Michigan.

"We here have soils of various kinds
To suit men who have different minds,
Prairies, openings, timbered land
And burr oak plains, in Michigan.

"Our water's good, there's no mistake,
Springs, rivers, brooks, and little lakes
Will all be seen by any man
Who travels through our Michigan.

"You who would wish to hunt and fish
Can find all kinds of game you wish;
Our deer and turkey they are grand,
Our fish is good in Michigan.

"Ye who have led a single life
And now would wish to get a wife,
I tell you this, now understand,
We have first-rate girls in Michigan."

What interesting pictures of frontier life may be obtained from stories told by early settlers in our own State! How vividly do they bring before us the work of clearing away the forest, the building of the log cabin, the breaking up of the land, sometimes with several yoke of oxen attached to the plow! How we realize some of the troubles of the pioneers when an old settler tells us that millions of mosquitoes, fleas, and bed bugs "were annoying and sucking the life's blood out of us every night. These infernals," he says, "would get into the cracks and crevices of the log castles, and nothing but hell-fire and brimstone would remove them. We dared not resort to that extreme remedy for fear of burning the castle."

And the bite of some of these insects was more than an annoyance, it was a serious menace to health. The bite of the mosquito, bred in countless numbers in the undrained swamps, undoubtedly caused the terrible malaria, the so-called ague or chills-and-fever, which was so prevalent. How we realize the seriousness of the scourge and what an insight into the darker side of pioneer life we get, when we read such an incident as this, told by an early settler: "A family of three—man, woman, and child—were helplessly sick about one mile from us. In the night the child died. They fired alarm guns for assistance, but no assistance came, as there were none able to be out nights, and very few in day time. Three of us, then boys, were enlisted to conduct their funeral for them. We three were the undertaker, preacher, sexton, and funeral procession all together. So we buried their dead 'without a funeral note or gospel word spoken,' and left them in their helpless condition, as we three looked more like escapes from a graveyard than living human beings."

But there was a brighter side to pioneer life. House-raising, log-rollings, and husking-bees were made occasions for neighbors to get together for merry-making as well as for labor. After the work was done, athletic contests and horse races took place; and, commencing in the evening, to the music of the squeaking fiddle, young and old continued to dance until well toward morning, when they would "hook up" their teams and return home.

A study of early railroading in our State takes the pupil directly into the history of transportation in the United States. Stories of lumbering and log-driving on our rivers interest the pupil in one of the great industries of our country. A Michigan forest fire leads into the big subject of conservation of natural resources. Attempted Fenian raids from Michigan into Canada gets one into close touch with the relations between England and Ireland, home rule, and the Ulster trouble. King Strang of the Beaver Islands reminds us of the Mormons. A study of the working of the underground railroad and stories of attempts to capture runaway slaves within the borders of our State, of which there are several interesting ones, would bring home to the pupil the workings of the Second Fugitive Slave Law more effectively than a lot of general discussion.

Many topics can be found in our State history well suited for special reports or papers by high school students and even worthy of serious investigation by students in college or university. A few such topics that might be suggested are the personal liberty laws passed to protect fugitive slaves, liquor legislation, the suffrage, history of political parties in the State, "wild-cat" banking, the negro in Michigan, the "copper fever" of 1845, the history of the various religious denominations, how the State got its boundaries, the part played by the State in the Civil War, the history of railroad building, the school system, and many other topics in our political, economic, social, and religious development.

How to obtain time for the study of State history is the problem. In the States west of the Alleghanies, less time might be given in the schools to the study of the history of the thirteen colonies, valuable as it is. Much, however, may be accomplished by connecting local and State history with the general history of the country as has been suggested above. In this way each will help the other. Topics in State history might well be assigned for papers and special reports in the American history class.

Doubtless in most of the States there is an abundance of material for this work. For Michigan, besides the various histories of the State and of the Old Northwest, there are the works of Parkman and Schoolcraft and other writers, the "Michigan Pioneer" and "Historical Society Collections," and for research work, the local and State records. Anything like a complete bibliography would occupy considerable space.

MUSIC IN MEDIEVAL AND MODERN HISTORY.

A means that has proved fertile in giving a class of second year high school boys added interest in medieval and modern history, has been the use of music as illustrative material.

For the most part, this has been done through a Victrola, though the boys have been encouraged to join in the singing of familiar airs, and occasionally an outsider has consented to give selections.

The programs have included national airs, old English songs, selections from the great masses, which can enliven even church councils; Luther's hymn, Tschaiowsky's Overture of 1812, Schumann's "Two Grenadiers," and operas, such as "Tannhauser," "William Tell" and "The Huguenots."

Whenever possible, a student has given the story of the opera or the setting of the selection. When there was no special historical background to present, the boys have interpreted the music for themselves. That they have taken a genuine interest in it is evidenced by the fact that a number have been willing to give up the recess period or return after school for a repetition of certain selections.

FLORENCE BERND.

Lanier High School, Macon, Ga.

Historical Museum Labels for Helmets¹

A museum, like a person, is apt to have special ideas in matters of labeling. In many instances labels give little more than a name, some museums believing that the objects should speak for themselves. Other museums, sympathizing with Professor G. Brown Goode, prepare labels which give information to the hungry—in large portions. Either extreme has evidently its good and bad features. Short labels irritate an intelligent reader by telling him that a spade is a spade, and a really long label, unless written in a masterly way, is avoided by nearly every one; for, sooth to say, an outsider does not often come to a museum with a fixed intention of learning at any cost. He likes, rather, to “nibble” and he is apt soon to get tired. If, therefore, a curator wishes to find how his labels are read and how they could be bettered, he should hover about his own cases and listen to what his callers say to one another—reversing his manners (and bruising his emotions sometimes) for the good of his department!

There is no question that long labels will sometimes be read; but one hardly knows beforehand just which objects are the most attractive. The ones which you and I would select are often by no means those which appeal to the general public. To such a degree is this true that even the mildest curator may decide to write his labels as he is convinced they ought to be written, “in the sight of God,” and let the public enjoy them or not. I have often noticed that people will be drawn to a long label if there is a picture in it, and a diagram, large and complicated, is sometimes appreciated by visitors whose externals do not suggest studious habits.

In a general way, I have come to the conclusion that a visitor likes to see the reasons for things—more often indeed than many imagine. And he is confused by dissociated objects; he feels satisfied if what he sees in the cases can be brought together in his mind as belonging to a *plan*. He knows that kinds and styles grade into one another and he has a notion that the first form begat the second, perhaps in a vaguely evolutionary way. Now I believe that this is a widespread trait or state of mind which can be taken into account in our label-writing. In this direction it seems at the outset, I admit, unpromising to prepare labels which deal with general questions, say in the matter of evolution;² but if this can be done

successfully, the return is worth the time and trouble it costs. For instance, I am inclined to believe that an interesting and very instructive diagram might appear in an exhibition of ancient furniture to show the changes which have taken place during the centuries in so familiar an object as a chair; or that in a gallery of ancient sculpture diagrams might attractively show the way in which the figure changed its mode of drapery during different centuries; or that picture-labels can point out that such objects as watches or clocks developed during the past three or four centuries in an orderly sequence; or that in the hall of arms and armor diagrams can indicate that swords, daggers, or pole-arms changed their shapes and structures in the course of time in regular progression. In the field of armor let us take a concrete example—the way in which the various forms of helmets arose from simpler beginnings.

In such a label, on page 205, we may trace the transformations which took place in helmets of usual form from early times down to 1700. In the diagram, one calls attention first of all to the nature of the object and its characteristic parts: it thus includes a picture of a well-developed helmet showing such structures as a bowl, crest, visor, ventail, chin guard, and neck-plates. The remainder of the label would illustrate the way in which these structures came into being. We may look over the pictures of the various helmets and see at a glance that one oldest part was the bowl, or timbre, that the visor was next in point of age, and that the ventail, chin guard, and neck-piece were of later origin. The label should, obviously, speak for itself: none the less, it shows so broadly the history of the helmet that one is tempted to explain it in detail.

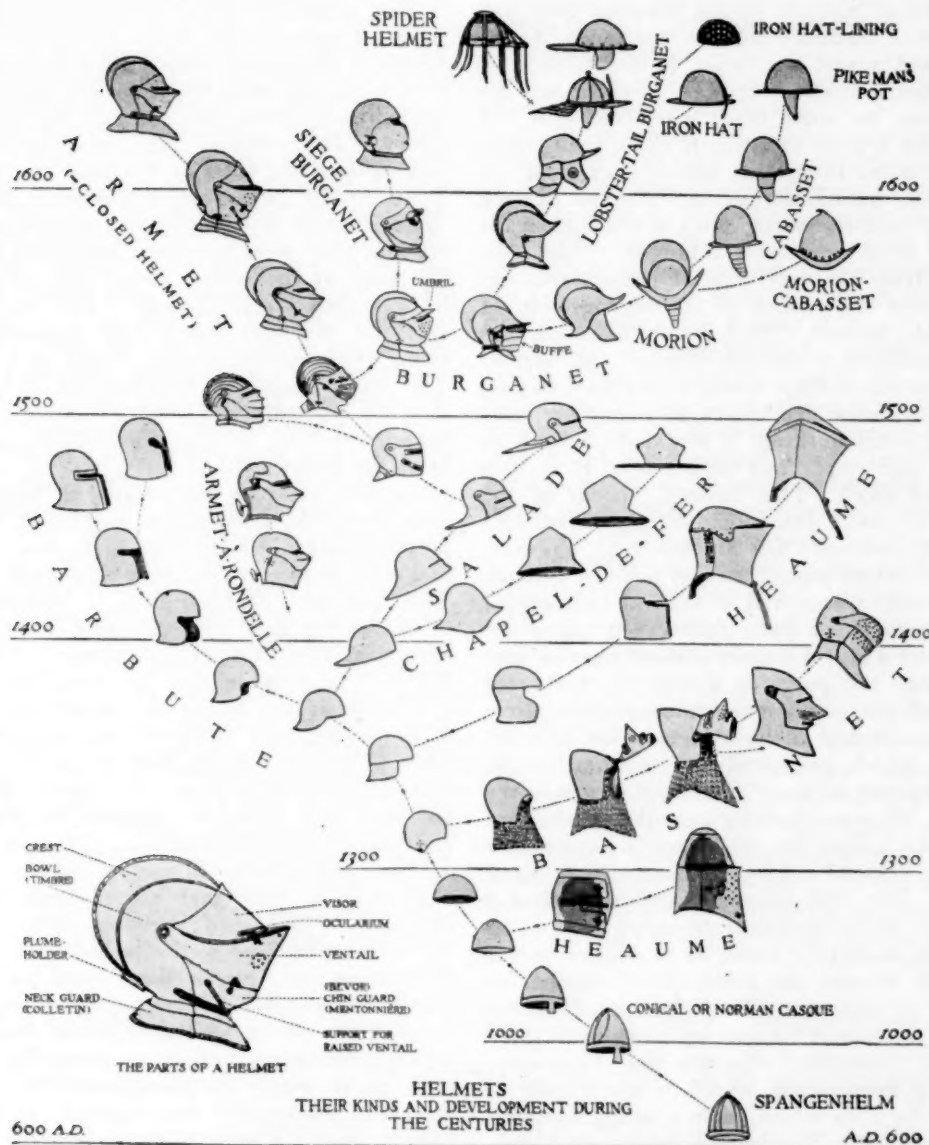
We notice, in the first place, that the label suggests the pictures in a zoölogical or geological handbook, where one traces the genealogy of horses, shells, or fishes. The “geological horizons” are in this case marked off horizontally as centuries—thus the lowest horizon in the present figure is about the time of the dispersal of the European nations, say A. D. 600.³ Another level would be represented by the year 1000, others would be 1300, 1400, 1500, and 1600. And upon this chronological scaffolding helmets are shown “evolving.” Thus, according to our diagram the usual type of an early European helmet was a “Spangenhelm,” dome-shaped, made up of small pieces of iron. From this primitive form arose the Norman helmet of about 1000. This was merely a Spangenhelm made up of fewer, larger pieces, and with an innovation in the form of a projecting flange

terms of parent and offspring, somewhat in the fashion that the secretions of gland might be measured, a process which, all will admit, concerns true evolution.

³ The history of the helmet in times earlier than this will be summarized in a separate label.

¹ Reprinted by permission from the Bulletin of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York, August, 1915.

² Evidently not strictly to be compared with the evolution of living beings, since these pass their changes along from parent to offspring, while “evolution” in objects represents only sequences in style. The latter kind of transformation, however, affords close analogies with the former, and in some cases stops little short of true evolution—as when objects represent the work of the brains and hands of generations of the same family of artists—for here the product of organisms can be measured in



or nasal guard. The next stage in development produced a domed casque in a single piece with a reduced nasal guard.

Another stage evolved a tight-fitting skull-cap or primitive *basinet*. It was this head-piece which was sometimes inclosed in a second helmet which fitted loosely over the head like a great inverted pot, the so-called *heaume*, which was usually carried at the saddle-bow and laced in place over the helmeted head only when the knight went into the *mêlée*. This supplementary type, often pictured in documents dating just before and just after the year 1300, appears to have been difficult to fix in its right position; if it received a heavy blow, it ran the risk of becoming

displaced and was thereupon worse than useless, for it blindfolded the wearer, since its eye-slit was no longer opposite the eye. The weak feature of this head-piece was evidently the complicated way in which it was laced in place. Such a helmet we should call in biological jargon "highly specialized" (like a beast whose teeth are suited only for a special kind of food), and like a highly specialized animal could not long survive (for when the special kind of food gave out, the animal which could live only on that food perished). Hence we are not surprised to find that the period of usefulness of this *heaume* was brief, and that a new form of defence took its place.

This new fashion developed in the fourteenth century from a close-fitting skull-cap or basinet, and a series of forms of basinets dating between 1300 and 1400 indicates a tendency for the head-piece to become taller and revert somewhat to the fashion of the ancient Spangenhelm. It was, however, an improvement upon the older type, inasmuch as it had adjustments for a hood or cape of chain mail which protected the chin, neck, and upper shoulders. It had also a face-guard, formed as a mask of iron which in early basinets swung down in place from the forehead, but in later ones was hinged at the side. In Northern Italy the best type of basinet next replaced or copied the *camail* in the downgrowth of the sides of the basinet. This result, however, was accomplished only as a *tour de force* on the part of the late fourteenth-century armorer—in fact, to-day, after the accumulated experience of over four hundred years in metal-working, it would be difficult to find an artist who could copy such a head-piece in a single piece of steel. This basinet, known as the Aquilegian, was easily the culminating point in this series of early casques. On another line, however, arose a curious blunt-nosed basinet, heavily formed, having wide neck plates and a separately modeled chin. This arose about 1400 and was in many respects so perfect a closed helmet that we wonder why it was not made the point of divergence for types which appeared only at a much later period. In a word, it must have had in its structure some fundamental defect which prevented the armorer of the day from continuing its use. Certainly it was heavy and unwieldy. It was set down over the head like a heaume and was a cage for the wearer's head rather than a helmet: it could not be satisfactorily fastened in position, its chin was immobile, and altogether it was too highly specialized long to survive.

It was again a simpler form, as explained in the diagram, which became the point of divergence for various forms of helmets. Thus the basinet which developed a neck guard formed of a separate piece seems to be the "ancestor" of a new line of heaumes, or heavy tilting head-pieces, which do not appear to be related to the ones which, as we noted, occurred about the year 1300. The later heaumes are shown in the diagram in four examples in which, decade after decade, the head-piece increased in size and was more and more perfectly adapted to its use. Thus this heaume came to be locked down to the breastplate and back-plate and could be used only when the wearer held his head in a certain position, as in bending forward in the saddle when tilting. Such a head-piece led to no further evolution.

It was a simpler form which once again must be sought as the "progenitor" of various types. Thus it was a small head-piece having a short neck guard not in a separate piece, but arising from the timbre, which seems to have been the basal form of all the later kinds of head-pieces. In one line it gave rise to the *chapelets de fer*, in another line to the *barbutes*, in still another to the *salades*, and, finally, most im-

portant, to the closed helmet which first appeared toward the middle of the fifteenth century.

The origin of the chapel-de-fer is clearly shown in the diagram. The latest of its type was a broad-brimmed hat of steel which arose from a simpler form with a sloping brim, which in turn arose from a wide, longish head-piece, i.e., one still having radical symmetry. The earliest chapel was depressed laterally and inclosed the sides of the head.

An equally interesting evolutionary series were the *salades* which developed extreme bilateral symmetry. At first they were produced backward so as to cover the nape of the neck. Later they developed in the brow region a slot through which the wearer could see. In the next stage there appeared a separate plate which rotated in such a way as to form a visor. The latest forms of this head-piece had extremely long neck guards which were flexible and formed of separate pieces, so that the wearer could bend his head far backward.

Equally clear is the origin of *barbutes*. These were hood-like head-pieces developed from a single piece of metal, which came to inclose the face more and more perfectly, and even developed a nose guard. This last type of head-piece is interesting, since it resembles the most perfect helmet known in classical antiquity, the "Corinthian casque" of the Greeks. While it is possible that the most complete *barbute* may have arisen during the Renaissance as a result of the widespread study of classical antiquities, it is more probable, I think, that it had an entirely independent origin—a case of "parallelism," as the zoölogist says, when he contrasts the wing of the bat and the wing of the bird, i.e., things similar in form and use, but different in mode of origin.

It will be seen that all of these head-pieces—chapels, *salades*, and *barbutes*—were faulty in so far as they have no well-attached chin defenses. As hat-shaped head-pieces they could not be held securely on the head. These objections were first overcome in the *armet*, as shown in the diagram. There was first developed (about 1450) the *armet à rondelle*—in many ways the most beautiful helmet which the art of the armorer ever devised. It is unlike later armets, and it is even doubtful whether it belongs to all in the main line of their "descent." The *armet à rondelle* was really a *barbute* in which the cheek-pieces grew so wide that for convenience they became hinged to the top of the helmet, and closed below over a peg on the point of the chin. The visor, too, was archaic: it was the visor of a basinet, but much reduced in size, still retaining, however, the basinet's curious hinge-like arrangement at the side. The neck region of this *armet* was protected by a *camail*, somewhat as in the earlier basinet, and it had at its back a disk, or *rondelle*, attached like a mushroom to a short, stout stalk, which appears to have been used first as a protector for the fastening of the neck-gear of chain-mail and later was retained as an ornament. It is doubtful, I say, whether this kind of *armet* gave rise to the later armets as shown in the present diagram. It had already become too

highly "specialized" in its attachment to the cape of chain-mail, as well as in its rondelle and its enormous cheek-flaps.

The origin of the later armets can, therefore, I believe, be better understood in the diagram by taking as a starting-point the curious head-piece shown as arising from the visored salades. This primitive armet was a *salade* which was deep in shape and closely modeled to the head. Its visor extended below the chin and was provided with breathing apertures which suggest crudely the lips of the wearer. The neck region had already been made flexible by the appearance of *laminæ* such as one finds in late forms of *salades*. If we start with this form, the development of the various types of head-pieces of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries can now easily be traced. From it arose a long series of closed helmets, *burganets*, *morions*, *cabassets*, iron hats, and, as the latest and most degenerate form of the helmet, a small metal hat-lining.

Studying some of these helmets in detail we find that about the year 1500 splendid armets, or helmets, were developed: they were more perfect "functionally" than even the *armet-à-rondelle*: thus, their crown or *timbre* was complete, modeled closely to the entire cranium; they required no straps or laces to keep them in place; they needed no neck defense of chain mail; and they were provided with both chin-piece and visor which not only "fitted," but were more conveniently articulated, for both rotated from the same pivot. Clearly, therefore, this casque was easier to fix in place or to take off. At this time, too, fluted surfaces appeared in the metal to make the bowl of the head-piece relatively lighter and stronger. Some of these helmets even had close-fitting necks which were so accurately moulded around the border of the neck-armor that they allowed the head-piece

to rotate in a "track." The next stage in the development of the armet produced separate visors, that is to say, the upper half of the earlier visor became a separate piece, but rotated always on the same pivot. Then arose various forms of crests and neck-gear, as shown in the figure.

On the one hand, *burganets* arose from armets developing a visor-like brim, like the peak of a cap. In late *burganets* (*siege-pieces*) this peak, or *umbril*, disappears: in earlier *burganets* which were designed for light use the chin region or *bevor* disappears, or is replaced by a demountable chin-guard (*bufte*). In these light *burganets* formal ear-tabs come to replace the heavier defenses of the side of the head. Also neck-guards, which were short in earlier types, became lengthened out, laminated, and flaring as in the Cromwellian "lobster tail" *burganets*. And in the last member of the series the neck-guard either became rudimentary, as in the curious spider helmet, or else was flattened out in a single heavy plate. *Morions* were clearly the derivatives of *burganets*, and *cabassets* were shortened-up *morions* in which the crescentic brow-and-neck guard was reduced to a short, flat brim. In this head-piece the crest or comb disappeared, after passing through a series of decadent forms. The latest effective helmets were pikemen's pots and iron hats; from them descended, in a degenerate line, iron hat-linings. In these the earliest were solid, shaped to the crown of a felt hat. They were next made lighter, sometimes by having holes cut in them, and later they became lighter still by being built up, basket fashion, of interlaced iron strips. In the last form of all they were formed as a series of bands so articulated that, when not in use, they could be folded up into a single piece or block and thrust into the owner's pocket. B. D.

Recent Changes in the Teaching of History in the Colleges and Universities of the Middle States and Maryland

BY RAYNOR W. KELSEY, PH.D., HAVERFORD COLLEGE.

According to the report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1913, the Middle States and Maryland are blessed with ninety-seven universities, colleges and schools of technology. Delaware maintains only one college, New Jersey has six, Maryland thirteen, New York thirty-five, while Pennsylvania has forty-two.

These ninety-seven institutions were addressed by the writer of this paper in order to secure the information set forth below. Seventeen of the ninety-seven are affiliated with the Roman Catholic Church and from these only two replies were received. From the other eighty institutions fifty replies were received—a resplendent record, showing that among other changes in the history teaching profession there

is a vast change for the better in the fine art of answering questionnaires.

The following is the list of questions that was sent out:

1. Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize the more recent periods of history?
2. Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize those developments in the past that bear upon the problems of the present?
3. Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize the economic and social phases of history?
4. Is more attention given to local history than formerly?
5. As to the teaching of history, please underline in the following list the methods that are increasingly

used and cross out those that are used less than formerly: lectures; text-books; syllabus; source materials; current literature; library facilities in general; visualizing aids; local illustrative material (e.g., museums, landmarks, etc.).

6. What general changes in the curriculum that affect the history department?

7. What changes of entrance requirements in history?

8. What changes not within the scope of the above questions?

9. What changes seem desirable for the near future?

Several of the replies received were inconclusive or incomplete so that the tabulation of the result shows a variation in the number of answers received for the various questions.

1. *Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize the more recent periods of history?*

The answers to the first question were entirely conclusive. Only one institution failed to answer under this heading. Three reported no change. Forty-eight answered that there *was* an increasing tendency to emphasize the more recent periods of history. Several stated that still greater progress in this direction is desirable. Only three institutions reported the creation of new courses in ancient history, and one of the three stated that such creation was the visible result of a subtle creative energy emanating from the departments of Greek and Latin.

2. *Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize those developments in the past that bear upon the problems of the present?*

The answers to the second question were even more conclusive. Out of fifty-two institutions sending replies, fifty reported an increasing tendency to emphasize those developments in the past that bear upon the problems of the present. Only two colleges reported no change in this particular and both of them specified that there had been no such change because there had always been a great tendency in that direction. Several stated that the present war in Europe had increased this tendency.

3. *Is there an increasing tendency to emphasize the economic and social phases of history?*

Increasing emphasis upon the economic and social phases of history was also clearly indicated by affirmative replies from forty-seven institutions. Several of them suggested that this tendency should be carried still further, and one college stated that "military history is being more and more omitted and economic and industrial history substituted therefor." Very naturally the United States Academy at West Point reported that emphasis is rather placed on "international relations and military affairs." One college reminded teachers of history that the tendency toward economic and social history might be carried too far and that the history of the evolution of the State would always be of prime and central importance.

4. *Is more attention given to local history than formerly?*

Thirteen institutions reported more attention given to local history while thirty-seven could detect no change in that direction. Several stated that no place is found for local history in college courses excepting obviously American history, and even in this field the study seems to be largely carried on in graduate courses and in the preparation of theses.

5. *As to the teaching of history, please underline in the following list, the methods that are increasingly used, and cross out those that are used less than formerly: lectures; text-books; syllabus; source materials; current literature; library facilities in general; visualizing aids; local illustrative material (e.g., museums, landmarks, etc.)*

In question five on methods of teaching came the rub. As to the use of lectures, text-books and syllabi, the replies were sufficiently seasoned with variety. Twenty voted that lectures are increasingly used, while twelve use them less than formerly. As to the increasing use of text-books, eleven answered affirmatively and nineteen in the negative, and similarly as to syllabi, eighteen were affirmative and fifteen negative. Such diversity of views evidently indicates a very open question. However, there were several facts and statements in the replies that stood out prominently. In some of the largest institutions there seems to be a reaction against laying too much stress on the lecture, and several of them are balancing this off with an increased use of the text-book. One college characterized the "purely lecture method as inadequate and out-of-date at the best, and at the worst a sham and a bluff on the part of the instructor to save the time required for proper preparation."

One large university reported a decreasing use of the syllabus, while another reported it "about gone."

As to the use of sources there was a good degree of unanimity among those that indicated any change at all. Thirty-three institutions use them increasingly, while four use them less than formerly. One of the latter still believes in them theoretically, but has not found a satisfactory method of using them to advantage. The University of Rochester reported as follows: "Source materials have been much overworked and while still used there is something of a reaction against their all-importance of a short while ago."

The replies were thirty-three to two to the effect that current literature is increasingly used although several warned that this method might be overdone, especially in the use of newspapers.

As to the use of the general library facilities only one dared confess to a falling away in this virtue, while thirty-nine vowed that progress was being made in this direction.

The last two questions under method asked about the use of visualizing aids and of local illustrative material such as historic landmarks and the contents of historical museums. As to the increasing use of visualizing aids in the class room, thirty-one answered in the affirmative and five in the negative. Several specified that the use of maps was especially in the ascendancy. The use of local illustrative material

such as may be found outside the class room does not seem to be increasing so generally, as was indicated by fifteen affirmative replies against eleven negative.

Several declared serious intentions of still further increasing the use of visualizing aids, both inside and outside the class room, but one college gave the information that such things were "primarily methods for the secondary schools."

On an average under each of the eight subdivisions on the changes of teaching-method, one-third of the institutions indicated that no change at all had been made in recent years.

6. *What general changes in the curriculum that affect the history department?*

The replies to question six were encouraging with slight exception. In one or two cases there had been a log-rolling campaign in changing the curriculum, and the history department had come out second best. However, in twelve cases out of the fourteen that reported changes, history had been given a more important place. In some cases it had been made a required subject in a system of electives more or less free. In others a group system had been established in which history is recognized as one of the coördinate major subjects.

The change made at the University of Pennsylvania in this respect is interesting and important and may serve as an example to some who contemplate the arrangement or rearrangement of a grouping system. The following extracts are from the kind and full reply received from that institution:

"Formerly all college and Wharton School students were required to take two units of history, there being a choice between some five courses, three European and two American. Now the college students have a group system to choose from. One of the six groups which they must take, is composed of history, economics and philosophy. They may choose three units in each of two of these subjects or six units in any one, to meet conditions of required work in this group. They also make history a major subject by taking nine units of work under the direction of the history department (although not necessarily all in history), and they may also elect courses in history out of eighteen units which are left free for election by college students. For the Wharton School students five units of history are required. Three of these are selected from a group of seven introductory courses. The two additional units are free electives."

7. *What changes of entrance requirements in history?*

The only changes of significance in entrance requirements are indicated by replies from three institutions that now accept a course in modern history. In this matter the history department at Temple University sees "indications of a willingness on the part of the colleges to accept any courses in history which the high schools teach well." Perhaps the writer may be allowed to add a prophecy that in the matter of modern history or any other of the re-

arranged courses suggested by the Committee of Five the colleges will readily come to accept whatever proves acceptable to the high schools, just as occurred earlier when the recommendations of the Committee of Seven came into effect.

8. *What changes not within the scope of the above questions?*

Questions eight and nine were drag-net questions to catch stray items that had not been successfully angled for in the more specific questions. The former asked about miscellaneous changes not accounted for by the previous questions. The replies were as miscellaneous as could be desired, and poured in somewhat as follows: More students are taking history than ever before, and increasing numbers are majoring in it; we are developing courses of intensive study on shorter periods or more limited phases of history; we have added a course partially devoted to methods of teaching history; "growing prevalence of the introductory course in European history;" the division of large courses into quiz sections at the University of Pennsylvania; the great success of the preceptorial method at Princeton, and in the graduate courses of the same institution the addition of "a large number of reading courses designed to give graduate students a wider acquaintance with the historical literature of all the great periods of history."

These items are perforce stated briefly in this paper. Several of them merit careful thought and full discussion.

9. *What changes seem desirable for the near future?*

The last question was a challenge: "What changes seem desirable for the near future?" Nor were those challenged slow in taking up the gauntlet: We need more library facilities. We need a stereopticon, and more maps, and other visualizing aids. We need more instructors and assistants in order to divide large courses and handle the library and quiz work properly. We need more adequate text-books, adapted to college courses but not of encyclopedic proportions. We need courses in methods of teaching history. We need courses that give more attention to colonial empires, to the newly rising countries east and west, and to the growth of international relations.

Two replies urged the need of courses adapted to the students' present or prospective environment and needs, as for example, courses in the history of agriculture, of industry, of architecture, and of localities in their relation to the nation or the world.

From Princeton came the following expression: "We need to give a good deal more attention to the process of connecting great historical movements and past historical periods with present movements and conditions; the failure to do this seems to be the most evident lack in American teaching."

A summary of needs stated by Hunter College will serve well to close this digest of the changes deemed desirable for the near future: "Greater emphasis on industrial and social evolution with a clear recognition of the evolutionary processes in society; less

ground covered, fewer facts learned to be quickly forgotten and more strict accountability for relations between opinions and facts; cultivation of the historical sense and the reasoning faculty, and more respect for documentary evidence to which all statements must be traced."

Summary and Conclusion.

The task of summarizing the data brought together in this investigation was rendered easy for the writer by two facts that stood out crystal-clear in the answers to his questionnaire. The first fact was the conclusive unanimity as to the advent of the new history, or socialized history. The second fact was the absolute lack of unanimity as to how history should be taught. Other problems galore were mentioned, more or less closely connected with these two, but these were written everywhere by everybody as fundamental.

We teachers of history represent a department of study so new to the curriculum that in the preparation of this little paper the writer received data from three times as many professors of history as there were in all the universities and colleges of the United States thirty years ago. Yet to-day history is given an ever larger place in all curricula and in the choice of students everywhere. And we see before our eyes a vast change taking place in the type of history that is being taught. Such a fundamental and sweeping change always needs to be guided and controlled. Another fundamental change, this one in the methods of teaching the subject, cries aloud its approach in the diversity of views expressed on that topic. Such

an imminent change demands the closest coöperative counsel of our guild.

One college professor, whose replies to the above questions betokened a major prophet, uttered this inspired saying: "We all work too disjointedly. We need better general agreement as to standards and closer adherence to those standards. If I knew with whom to agree I for one should agree right speedily."

With whom, then, shall we agree and who shall set a standard for us? Not indeed the faithful ones who provided data for this paper, for half of them disagreed with the other half on half of the questions submitted. Not indeed those who may discuss the subject in this meeting, for nobody ever agrees with anybody else when we discuss college history in the meetings of this Association. Why should not a committee be appointed to deal with this whole question? History in the schools has had its Committee of Five and Committee of Seven and Committee of Eight, and the end is not yet.

Unless the discussion of this question develops a plan more practicable, the writer of this paper will propose in the business session to-morrow the appointment of a Committee on the Teaching of History in the Universities and Colleges. Such a committee would face a tangle of trials and a maze of dangerous by-paths. But it should be able in the end to blaze a trail for us in the general direction of better efficiency and greater service, and to call out to us at last: "This is the true way, walk ye in it."

Then however short we might fall of the goal of our ideals, we could at least assure ourselves that we had made an honest effort, and perchance convince others that we take our profession seriously.

Extracts from the Letters of a Nantucket Forty-Niner

BY B. H. NYE, YONKERS, N. Y.

That the discovery of gold in California was widespread in its effect on the Eastern States is well known, but how closely it touched the daily life of their people is perhaps not so clear. There was scarcely a newspaper that did not carry advertisements pertaining to the California rush. Columns were filled with advertisements of California outfits, and others with notices of ships sailing for the gold country. Then, too, many accounts of the new land and letters home began to appear from time to time in the daily papers.

The excitement over the discovery and the consequent rush to take advantage of it was not confined to the large centers of population, but spread to the smaller and more remote towns and villages as well. It was only natural, then, that a seafaring town such as Nantucket was would be well represented among the thousands who flocked to the golden shore of California.

Over a hundred men of varying stations in life went from this old township. Quiet and sleepy it is now, making its living from the summer guest who comes thither for rest and recreation. But during the first half of the nineteenth century ten thousand people lived on the island all the year round. Ships entered and cleared daily for all parts of the world. Then the docks and basins, now given over to fishermen with their cat boats, were filled with full-rigged trading ships and whalers. In those days, too, the old spermacetti factories, where the famous candles were made, and the old warehouses, now falling into decay, were busy throughout all the year.

The people of Nantucket were a hardy and adventurous lot. So in 1849 when the first cry of gold in California reached the East, there was an immediate response from the men of Nantucket. More than a hundred went out to the new country. On January 9, 1849, the ship "Aurora," of Nantucket, sailed for

San Francisco, carrying a number bound for the gold fields. Many of her passengers worked their passage out, and it was duly inscribed in the ship's articles that they were to receive one dollar per month and have the privilege of leaving the ship at San Francisco. This was, indeed, a great privilege at that time, as many ships lay in the harbor at San Francisco unable to sail, for their crews had all deserted and hurried off to the gold fields. Shipping firms and sea captains were offering from one hundred to one hundred and fifty dollars a month for able-bodied seamen and could get none.

Labor was the most expensive commodity in California, and as a result men took a very independent attitude toward each other. An able-bodied man did not lack remunerative employment, provided he wished to work. The following incident shows most clearly this attitude:

A gentleman on landing from a ship offered a negro fifty cents to carry his bag to a hotel. The negro pulled out two dollars, handed them to the gentleman, and told him to carry his own bag.

That the New Englander in California lost none of his shrewdness in a trade during the wild rush for gold we know from letters sent to relatives and friends at home. These letters also furnish us with an idea of the prices that many of the Eastern products brought in California, as well as giving an idea of the life during the gold period. Many of the prices noted are taken from a letter written home by one of the men who sailed in the "Aurora." That he did not work his passage out is evident from the nature of the outfit he carried along. The letter was begun on July 16, 1849, and reached Nantucket about the middle of September of the same year.

Contrary to expectation, he does not at first speak of gold, but mentions it as rather a secondary matter. Speaking of gold, he says: "As for gold there is plenty of it here; but all that I can say on the subject you will get in the papers." One incident, however, he considers worthy of notice, possibly because it shows the abundance of the precious metal, or on account of the novel mining method pursued. "Coming up to dinner," he says, "I saw two boys sitting on the ground; I stopped and saw them picking up scales of gold with a pin, which they did by wetting the point of it with their tongues." And this took place on a San Francisco street!

Now, the real trader in the author comes to the fore, as he records the profits of the venture. He goes on to say: "We have sold off nearly all our things, and the following are some of the prices we got:

"For our house, which cost at home \$250, we got \$1300, for the tent which cost \$50 we got \$250, our wagon cost \$100 and sold for \$312, a cook stove cost \$15 sold for \$125, for fifty pounds of saleratus we got \$150 (\$3 per pound), 1,500 pounds of bread \$165, for 100 pounds of butter \$100, six barrels of flour \$48, one barrel of pork \$30." All told there was a profit of some eighteen hundred dollars on an investment of perhaps six hundred.

We find advice freely given to prospective adventurers in the land of gold. Only two suits of clothing should be brought, and those heavy in order to stand rough wear. They should be brought out from the East, as the clothing to be had there was not good and was very high priced. Shirts and other wearing apparel could be bought fairly reasonably in California, fine white shirts sold for five dollars a dozen. Our New Englander is not so enthusiastic over digging gold, or perhaps his native conservatism asserts itself when he advises mechanics and those having a trade to bring along their tools, as they could make more through plying their trade than in digging gold. At any rate, he maintains their income is more certain. He cites the fortunes of two friends to prove his contention, saying: "I saw my friend Joseph Jordan of Tahiti, he had been to the mines ten days and got \$1,306 over and above all expenses. Another from Tahiti dug ten days and got five hundred dollars net."

Again and again does one find emphasis laid on the cost of labor. Here we read that "I have not been able to go to the Post Office, for time is worth from one to two dollars an hour. I have taken thirty dollars for two days' work and thirty dollars for two and one-half days' work this week. I have still two adobe chimneys to build this week." Later on in his letter he tells his friend that "Three of us finished the chimneys in three-fourths of a day, receiving thirty-six dollars for the job."

Apparently the post office was doing a land office business, if we may believe the following: "I should be very glad to pay postage on this, as I have on the others, but there is such a rush to the post office that I can hardly get within a mile of it. It will not pay to dot i's or cross t's."

San Francisco was very soon organized as a town, for the writer under the date of August 1, 1849, says: "This is election day for town officers and I have voted, so you may cross me out as a citizen of Nantucket."

Much has been said of the violence generally prevalent in the mining camps of the period, so that an extract taken from another California correspondent may prove of interest in refuting some of the wild stories: "Gambling and drinking prevail very extensively, but weapons of defence seem to be about useless and can be purchased very low. I have conversed with a number of gentlemen who have travelled over a large extent of the gold country and was glad to hear that good order prevails throughout, and that honesty is thoroughly the order of the day."

The optimism and hopefulness that is so characteristic of the West seems at an early date to have had its effect on the easterners who found themselves for long under the golden skies of California. The staid Nantucketer ends his letter with the words, "This is a great country; if you get up in the morning you can pick up any quantity of five dollar gold pieces."

The Social Sciences in the High School

BY EDWARD McMAHON, ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR OF HISTORY IN THE UNIVERSITY OF WASHINGTON.

Public taxation for educational purposes can be justified, it seems to me, on two broad general grounds—first, that it gives the individual that necessary training which fits him to select and fill his vocation in life so that he may intelligently and adequately support himself and the members of his family dependent on him; and, second, that it enables him to understand the political, economic and social systems in which he lives; understand them, in spirit and machinery, well enough to decide whether his rights among men are being subverted or subserved, and if subverted, to have some notion of the remedies; that it gives him some larger visions of social equality and social justice as against individual, industrial and social exploitation and political deception; that it fires him with enthusiasm with the rights of men, the ideals of a better society, and a faith in social progress.

It is to the second of these grounds that I shall address myself, discussing in some measure the subjects now included in the secondary curriculum which minister to the social life, and urging the inclusion of still others that are deemed essential.

Professor E. J. James long since pointed out that we are living under "a theory of government quite opposed in some respects to that underlying any other great political organization, and based upon what is essentially and fundamentally a very different state of society from that which has characterized any nation in which similar experiments have been tried. We are trying to-day to govern a great political community upon the theory and principle that every man, and perhaps before long, every woman, is a political expert, entitled to have an opinion upon all political questions, and upon all social and economic questions which may become political. . . . In doing this we are flying not only in the face of all political history, but also in the face of some of the most fundamental principles of modern social and industrial organization itself." He continues his argument, pointing out that in the industrial field we accept the principle of division of labor, and in the fields of medicine, law and theology we set aside certain people for the cultivation of these lines of activity, and we recognize their superiority in their respective lines. "Yet, in strange contrast to all this, we make the business of politics, the business of governing and ruling the State, the business of controlling by the power of the State, the lines along which human society shall develop—we make this, or attempt to make this, the business of everybody. We undertake to say in theory, if not in practice, . . . that the average man and woman in our society has sufficient knowledge and skill and understanding . . . to make it practically a safe thing to entrust the control of this most important of all business to the common man."

I have no quarrel with the political theory Professor James discusses, but it seems to me perfectly evident that unless society in some way insures the possession by the common man of the necessary knowledge, skill and understanding to meet his responsibilities as a citizen, that that theory must inevitably fail in operation, and it is my further contention that it is the business of the schools to supply, so far as they can, these requisites of citizenship.

Most of us believe in popular suffrage, but we cannot be blind to the fact that the ballot in the hands of the negro in reconstruction days drove into bankruptcy some of the Southern States and furnished a travesty on legislatures and legislators never elsewhere equaled in civilization. It is easy enough to see the mote in the black man's eye, and a close investigation may reveal a small speck in the white man's.

It is certainly not a pleasant task to point out in public the shortcomings of one's own country, yet it seems necessary in showing how far and in what respects our educational agencies fail to meet their responsibilities. Twenty years ago James Bryce stated that the government of our cities "is the one conspicuous failure of the United States," and recent "muckrakers," high and low, have painted in vivid colors the "Shame of Our Cities." Undeniably we have made some progress in the solution of our municipal problems, but who to-day will contend that we are on the right road to their solution? At present we are watching the progress and outcome of a radical wave which demands a change in the system of city government. May it not be that the main fault is in the training of our citizenship? Recent revelations in connection with our state governments—yours and mine—make us wonder if there are not other conspicuous failures in that direction, and still more recent revelations as to the activities of our "invisible government" extend the range of questioning immeasurably.

"It is the opinion of all thinkers on the subject that there could hardly be more unjust tax laws than those of this country," says Professor Jenks. Is the school child made to see that the man who swears down his tax assessment is practically putting his hand in his neighbor's pockets by increasing their taxes unjustly? Andrew Carnegie is authority for the statement that our banking system is the worst in the civilized world, and Carnegie is in a position to know, and so, to some extent, are those who followed the insurance scandals of recent date. If you take the time to talk with the man in the street you will find him convinced that every form of governmental activity is tainted, crooked, inefficient and extravagant. And the disheartening phase of the matter is he expects nothing else, he looks for nothing

else, and I have repeatedly heard his contention that nothing else is possible. Our grand scramble for spoils is founded largely on the conviction that public office is a lucrative private graft, and that if you don't grab your share it will go to some one else. What kind of ideals have the schools given such a citizen?

At present, we of the Pacific Coast are hearing very much about the great Panama Canal which is to mean so much to us, and a good deal about the men who have built it. It is extremely pleasing to be able to point it out as one great governmental enterprise conducted efficiently and well. There is no question of its great value as a canal, but we may find that the greatest value will not be in the canal itself, important as that is, but in its indirect effect on the fibre of our national character. We have now learned that we can do things that we thought impossible before. "We have learned something of the stupendous potentiality of concerted action and incidentally we have built a notable canal." The result should be a new confidence in the ability of the nation, rightly led, to do things for itself that have in the past been left to private enterprise, and that can be better done by governmental than by private enterprise. The secret of the success is simple, so simple that a grammar school child can understand it. All we have done is to eliminate "pull" and place responsibility upon capable men who were *willing and able* to reward merit and efficiency. With the right kind of social and political ideals we might have been doing a similar high grade of work for years. The digging of the Panama Canal should fill us with pride, but it should also make us ashamed that similar efficient work has been impossible heretofore, and make us humble because the only sound result of doing a great deed is that it commits us to the doing of still greater deeds. I cannot but believe that the right sort of social ideals taught in our schools through the medium of the social sciences will remove what has heretofore been an almost impassable barrier confronting our governmental activities, viz., tolerance of inefficiency, crookedness and wastefulness. This tolerance is largely the result of ignorance. Bryce pointed out twenty years ago that the political education of Americans was higher than that of the average in Europe, but he adds, "If it be compared with the functions which the theory of the American government lays on him [the citizen], which the spirit implies, which the methods of its party organization assume, its inadequacy is manifest." "It is sufficient to enable them to think they know something about the great problems of politics; insufficient to show them how little they know."

Let us turn now to the social science subjects in the curriculum. It would be presumptuous, indeed, for me to attempt to add anything to the able arguments for a saner teaching of history that have been made by the Committee of Seven. That committee, after a careful study, recommended steps that the schools were prepared to take, and in the main have taken. The influence of their report has been very widespread, and a number of positive gains in courses

and methods can be credited to it. The more than ten years following the publication of the report have, however, indicated a definite movement in the direction of laying still more emphasis upon modern history in both the European and American fields—a movement which the Committee of Five found was too strong to be ignored. The newer point of view is tersely stated by Professor J. H. Robinson, who says, "I have especially at heart the exploitation of history in the cause of social betterment, for it seems to be becoming clear that one of the most unmistakable uses of history lies in explaining the present either by showing how it has come about or in illuminating it by indicating the contracts it offers to the past." To be able to re-examine history to this end, the teacher must be alive to what is being done along the firing line of social betterment, and then from this newer point of view "substitute for the great mass of irrelevant and outworn matter that fills our history books, a new selection of material to meet our present demands."

For, after all, the present time is the only time worth very much to the average man. The great majority of our children do not get beyond the grammar and high school, and the past should be given to them only in so far as it is made to bear a vital relation to the social situation confronting them. In the limited time available for their study of social matters they should be led to those which are important to them as directly as possible.

It used to be said of history that it was the worst taught subject in the curriculum. This is no longer true. That objectionable distinction has been passed on to civil government. One reason for this is, no doubt, the great demands which the proper teaching of the subject makes upon the teacher. On the theoretical side, the teacher needs a reasonable grounding in history (particularly institutional history), political economy, sociology, parliamentary practice, and some knowledge of law and jurisprudence. On the practical side, the teacher must have a real insight into, and familiarity with practical politics at least to the point of a thorough understanding. And finally, a deep interest in the civic life of his community, and this must be kept alive and up-to-date. No teacher can hope to do successful work in civil government who does not follow the current discussions, public acts, messages and reports concerning the actual doings of government and political parties.

Speaking generally, and of course there are exceptions, the teachers of civics are poorly prepared on both the theoretical and practical sides. In fact, many of them know scarcely anything of the practical side, and frankly admit it. They have never visited a court, a city council, a town meeting, legislature or a political convention, and these things are little more than names to them. They are totally ignorant of the spirit and processes of such bodies except as they have learned of them from books. Civil government as these teachers know it and teach it is absolutely lifeless, a thing to be studied about as one would study the laws of the Medes and Persians.

A number of years ago we made civil government a required subject for entrance to the University of Washington, and after two or three years of trial we shifted it to the optional group because the kind of civil government we were getting was not only useless, it was worse than useless; it gave the students the idea they knew something of real government—they had "finished" the subject.

When one realizes that only about 20 per cent. of the students in high school, and a far fewer number in grammar school, ever study civil government (such as it is), and that three times the amount of energy put forth on civil government in the high school is given to the comprehension of the language of the ancient Romans, it is not hard to understand some of our failures in government. Every one familiar with the elective system in the universities knows also that many, if not most, of our university students are graduated without taking a single course in American government. A good deal of our educational system seems to be built on the theory that in previous or subsequent conditions important omissions will be made good. Until quite recently some important things were to be learned after graduation, upon the theory that the years spent in school were only a preparation for life and not a part of life itself. This theory still holds in large measure with regard to training for citizenship.

A thorough understanding of his local government is of utmost importance to the citizen. The textbook makers, however, for purely commercial reasons, viz., to give their books an interstate use and sale, have very greatly overemphasized the importance of the national government, and the teachers have followed the texts. Otherwise excellent textbooks slight the local government by attempting to discuss it in meaningless general statements that apply to a number of states, and the student gets away with no adequate conception of the importance of the government that affects him most vitally.

Woodrow Wilson has called attention to the fact that of the twelve greatest reform measures of all kinds passed in England within the last century, only one before our Civil War and only two since our Civil War amendments to the Constitution, would have been in this country matters for the central government. The others would have been dealt with by the separate States. Beneficial to the wool farmer as the tariff might be, says Professor Jenks, the chances are that the ten dollars in money and the two days of time spent in attending political rallies, if expended in battenning the cracks in his sheds would save him more money in lambs than he would gain from the increased price of wool under the new tariff. The average carpenter or mason has more real concern in the election of the next school teacher than in that of the next President. In the same vein he goes on to point out that millions of dollars were spent in the campaign of 1896 to change the opinions of farmers, yet the average well-to-do farmer "would be affected more, and more permanently" by the conversion of his dirt road to market into a good macadam road.

The methods of teaching civil government still, in many places, deal with the dead and dry bones of governmental structure. Meaningless details are still considered the essentials, and we still have among us those deluded individuals who believe it necessary to compel students to memorize the Constitution from Alpha to Omega. "Charity shall cover a multitude of sins," said a committee of the American Political Science Association, but by no possible stretch of her mantle could she hope to hide all the bad work that passes for instruction in civil government.

Political economy and sociology present to the teacher some of the same difficulties found in the teaching of civil government so far as preparation is concerned. In a greater degree than history or civil government, I think, they present another difficulty. Many of the subjects they deal with are still live political questions, and it is exceedingly difficult to get students to consider impartially any of these controverted questions. Our politics, our schools, our religion, our social life are permeated with intolerance. Young people, it is true, often differ in judgment on a question of natural science, but a measuring rod or a balance, a microscope or a retort, forbids them to dogmatize. It is comparatively easy for a science teacher to refer a stubborn or conceited pupil to a simple experiment, and let nature show him his foolishness. In the social sciences opinion can be controverted only by argument combined with a wise handling of individual prejudices. If the teacher is one of cool judgment and adequate training, the student will absorb from his wisdom and sympathy the habit of tolerance which cannot be forced on him. The true teacher's attitude will be that of a judge who expects in cases of dispute to find some truth on both sides, who is willing to see both good and evil alike, and who is prepared to find both parties sincere but with different points of view.

I do not contend that either political economy or sociology in the high schools can be taught in any such full sense as they are taught in college. Nor do I believe they should be taught with the same end in view. In the high school the best that may be done is to give the students as broad and sympathetic views of the problems at issue as may be, with the hope that each side will have an intelligent and appreciative understanding of the others' point of view. The labor unionist's son will be a better citizen if he appreciates the point of view of the capitalist's son, and vice versa. Both stand a better chance of gaining this decided advantage in school under a wise teacher than they do after leaving school. In my home city we have twice voted on a taxation issue in the form of a modified single tax. If it is the business of the citizens to settle these questions at the ballot-box, is it not the duty of the schools somewhere and somehow to prepare the coming citizen for an intelligent and understanding exercise of his vote? I cannot escape the conclusion that either these questions must not be referred to the voters, or we must meet the question in the schools and qualify the voter as far as we can to exercise these functions. I am not optimist enough, or perhaps I should say, short-sighted

enough, to believe that children can solve these questions, but we can at least create in them a healthy interest and a tolerant and sympathetic appreciation of an opponent. As citizens they must be made to realize "that many, though not all, of our social evils come not from wickedness or hard-heartedness, or injustice, but largely from mal-adjustment of social relations, and that many of these mal-adjustments can be remedied by wise changes in method." We should aim to give the student some little knowledge of the facts and principles of economic science in order that he take intelligent views and form intelligent opinions upon public and private matters of an economic character.

Relatively few schools attempt a course in political economy, and too many of these are concerned with the technicalities of involved and difficult theories that get nowhere so far as the immature student is concerned. The teachers, however, who understand their subject and have the ability to pick out and state concretely their illustrations are getting surprising results, not in technical political economy, but in that broadening and humanizing attitude of their students toward our economic problems. Sociology, which is still largely in the "twilight" zone, should, it seems to me, be given in some modified form in the high school, and its purpose should be, as in political economy, to give breadth of view and serious appreciation of social problems.

I can anticipate some of the objections that will be raised to my suggestions. Where are we to get an adequate number of properly trained teachers? Train them, just as we do in other lines, and as we are doing to some extent now in the universities. Equipped teachers will be forthcoming just as soon as we make up our minds definitely and decidedly that we want them and their work. But it will be urged, we have no suitable text-books in some of these subjects. We are facing the same situation here that every new subject in the curriculum has faced. All we need is the insistent demand, and the book publisher will meet us more than half way. As a matter of fact there are a couple of texts on sociology preparing now, and yet I do not know of a single place where high school sociology is given.

Where shall we find the time? The curriculum is already overcrowded. Here is where the most serious and stubborn objection will come, viz., from those interested in teaching subjects already in the curriculum. What will be crowded out? Where make the room? It is no part of my purpose here and now to discuss this phase of the subject. If I correctly see the situation, the demands for a more enlightened citizenship will insist upon the inclusion of the social sciences. As already stated, one of two things will be brought about; either we must not continue to refer these difficult questions to the people for solution, or the schools must meet their responsibilities and do their best to prepare the citizen to solve these problems. The movement for a more efficient democracy is world-wide, and more insistent than ever before. To think of heading it back is folly—it must go on—every other form of government is, gradually but

surely, giving way before it. So far as we can see, the movement shows no signs of cessation, but is rather gaining momentum. The only possible alternative, then, is for the schools to face the situation and "make good."

There is abundant consolation and promise in turning back the pages of history in search of a similar situation. Not many years ago the same arguments were used over and over again in opposition to the newest upstart in the educational field of that day—the natural sciences. Back in the early morning of our national existence the educators and educational system repelled science from the educational doors, until in response to the newer democracy of that day the academies took in science. In time the academies became fossilized, and were dominated by the colleges, and the high schools, springing from the needs of the people, swept into the curriculum a host of informational courses, each of which was completed in fourteen weeks. These subjects were, in many cases, forced into the educational system by legislative enactment, and in spite of all arguments to the effect that they were too difficult, that there were no competent teachers to teach them, that they required expensive laboratories and equipment, and finally, that they would undermine the foundations of religion itself—in spite of all these arguments they form a large part of the high school course; yea, they have even lost their identity as science, and have been pushed down into the grades where they merge into that undifferentiated protoplasm called nature study. The competent teachers and satisfactory text-books have been supplied, and many of our high schools are better equipped with laboratory facilities than were the colleges of a generation ago. What has been done for natural science can be done for social science.

And last, but not least, where is the money to come from? From exactly the same place that all public money comes, out of the pockets of the people. If, by a better trained citizenship, we can save one per cent. of the public money squandered and wasted through inefficiency, mismanagement, short-sightedness and corruption, we will have an abundance to draw upon in meeting the additional expense. When that day comes, perhaps, governmental undertakings will cease to be synonymous with inefficiency and graft, office-holding will no longer be a stigma that must be ignored or lived down, and, as a people we will get the benefit in public undertakings of the brains and ability which to-day, in large measure, shun public employment, and have worked such wonders in manufacturing, transportation, science, medicine and surgery. When that day comes we will be immeasurably nearer the ideal of the poets, the dreamers, and scholars—the kingdom of God on earth.¹

¹ A paper read before the Pacific Coast Branch of the American Historical Association at its meeting in Los Angeles, November 29, 1913.

Making History Teaching Definite

The French Revolution from the Meeting of the Estates General to the Reign of Terror

BY D. C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., CENTRAL HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

DRAMATIC CHARACTER OF THE PERIOD.

With the opening of the States General the French Revolution begins to take on a decidedly dramatic character. There are few periods of history marked by so many far-reaching changes within so short a space of time. For this reason it is easy to unduly minimize or to overlook altogether some of these events. Each episode must be carefully analyzed, and its relation established to what preceded and what followed, if its influence upon the entire movement is clearly grasped by the student. The material which must be utilized has this advantage, that it partakes largely of the nature of a story or a series of stories. It is much more than a story, however; it is the unfolding of a line of development of the greatest significance both for France and for all Europe. In order to assist the student in realizing the truth of the foregoing statements, the following series of problems have been suggested:

First of all, the student should be on the alert to recognize the chief events which mark progress. The class should be assigned the entire epoch from the meeting of the States General to the adjournment of the National Constituent Assembly, to select therefrom a list of events which, in their judgment, mark the important developments of this epoch. These should then be discussed in a general way in the class-room, the teacher and class together examining the different lists submitted, and agreeing, if possible, upon the main episodes.

"REPORTING" THE REVOLUTION.

The class is now ready for a more careful and a more systematic treatment of the epoch. Let a certain number of episodes be assigned, e.g., the Tennis Court Oath, the Formation of the National Assembly, the Fall of the Bastille, the Abolition of Privilege, the Removal of the King and Queen to Paris, to be written up as news items. The student is to imagine himself a reporter detailed by a great newspaper to glean at first hand the various details about each of these episodes. In presenting them, let him do this in such a way as to call the attention of his readers to the significance of what had just transpired. It should be pointed out that he has a decided advantage over those who reported the event at the time, as he knows more of its relative value and importance than could possibly be surmised by the contemporary who witnessed it. After carefully going over the details to be found in the text-book or the reference books available, let the student write some good headlines for his news item; headlines that will indicate the significance of what he is about to

describe; and then carefully select and arrange the essential facts in such a way as to give his imaginary readers a good story. An exercise, or a series of exercises of this character, should prove of great value for two reasons: First of all, they will emphasize the significance of each event; secondly, they will afford the student the proper drill in the selection and arrangement of his material. He will begin to appreciate, as never before, the difference between reading his history text-book and in studying it. In other words, his history lesson will present the same challenge to his mentality as an assignment in mathematics. He will attack it with a certain vigor ordinarily lacking in the preparation of his daily work.

The teacher will have to exercise his judgment as to how much of an assignment to give the class for a single recitation. It might be better to assign for the first exercise simply the preparation of a number of headlines. If the student is not asked to bring these to the class he should be requested to prepare to write them in the class-room, possibly as a black-board exercise.

SPECIMENS OF WORK.

The following headlines selected from the papers submitted by the students in a second-year class will illustrate the interest aroused by an exercise of this character. They also serve to indicate in a measure the character of the newspaper reading which is being done outside the class-room.

I.

REMOVAL OF THE KING AND QUEEN TO PARIS. MOB BRINGS KING TO PARIS. THOUSANDS OF FRANTIC AND STARVING MEN AND WOMEN MARCH TO VERSAILLES.

II.

ONE NIGHT'S WORK DESTROYS THE SOCIAL SYSTEM.

III.

GREATEST FORTRESS IN FRANCE CAPTURED BY MOB. GATHERING OF TROOPS INCITES MOBS TO ACTION.

IV.

FORMATION OF THE NATIONAL GUARD. PEOPLE GET AHEAD OF THE KING. FORM A NATIONAL GUARD TO MAINTAIN ORDER. FAMOUS FRENCHMAN AT HEAD.

V.

TENNIS COURT OATH. COULDN'T GET NOBLES TO JOIN. MIRABEAU IN HOT WATER.

The student who used No. 1 as his headlines worked out his description as follows:

Paris, Oct. 5.—There has been much excitement lately in Paris. Many people have been starving. They thought the king would help them, and as there was no doubt of his loyalty they marched to Versailles. The National Guard also went along, and also Lafayette. After a hard

march they reached Versailles and entered the palace. There is much hatred of the queen, and it was hard to prevent some from murdering her, as they thought she was still an Austrian at heart and a traitor to their cause. The king readily consented to go to Paris, although it appeared as if he was unwilling. The people were very joyful on their return march and termed the royal family "the baker, the baker's wife and the baker's boy." The king was entirely at the mercy of the mob, but no harm was done because of the favorable opinion which they have of him. He was escorted to the palace of the Tuileries. Before entering, the crowd pressed around him and made him don a cap with the revolutionary colors. He hesitatingly accepted. It was feared by some that if he had not obeyed the wishes of the mob he might have been killed.

In only a few cases did the students consult books other than the Robinson and West. The library was limited, and they were not urged to do more than analyze carefully the accounts given in these textbooks.

THE WORK OF THE NATIONAL CONSTITUENT ASSEMBLY.

Before the class takes up the next phase of the Revolution, the device of the editorial, which was discussed at some length in the last number of the magazine, could be employed to sum up the work accomplished by the National Constituent Assembly, bringing out its real significance to the people of that day. The following specimen is a fairly successful exercise of this character:

The National Assembly has completed its work. Several questions arise as to the success of this Assembly. Did they go far enough? Did they meet the situation? Did they succeed in satisfying the people? Until the fall of the Bastille, we must admit, it was hard for the Assembly to do anything because they did not know on what side the majority of the people stood. After this, however, they were able to go right ahead with their work. We now see a member of this Assembly at the head of the new form of government, the Commune. About the first great work that they did was to abolish feudal survivals. This was undoubtedly for the good of the people, thus giving the people a stronger foothold. On the whole, the work of the Assembly was successful, but there are at least two incidents where they made mistakes. The first was the issuing of the assignats or paper currency, as such a lot of this paper accumulated that it soon became almost useless. The other mistake was the Civil Constitution of the Clergy, because by this act thousands of those who had been heretofore on the side of the Assembly were shocked. The harsh treatment of the non-juring clergy was also a mistake, as the revolution now ceased to stand for liberty, order and abolition of ancient abuses, but stood for violence and a new kind of oppression worse than the old. Now does the good done by the Assembly overbalance the mistakes they made? I think it does. Although they made some mistakes, the National Assembly did the best they could considering the times and conditions they had to meet.

THE FOREIGN WAR AND THE REVOLUTION.

The outbreak of foreign war brought about a great change in the Revolution, and this idea should therefore be prominently brought before the class. Robinson calls this the "Second" Revolution, and characterizes in a few sentences the nature of the changes which followed the outbreak of war and their general effect upon the Revolution as a whole. This phase of the movement could be introduced to the class by taking these sentences from the book of Professor Robinson's, and showing their application to the entire period from April, 1792, to the establishment of the Directory in 1795: "This permanent, peaceful revolution, or reformation, was followed by a second revolution of *unprecedented violence*, which for a time *destroyed the French monarchy*. It also introduced a series of further changes, many of which were *absurd and unnecessary and could not endure*, since they were approved by only a few fanatical leaders. . . . *The weakness of her government* which permitted the *forces of disorder and fanaticism* to prevail, combined with the *imminent danger of an invasion by the united powers of Europe*, produced the Reign of Terror."¹ This portion of the introduction to Chapter XXXVI should be read with the class, and the important points which we have italicized duly emphasized and explained. One or two exercises could then be assigned; the first, in the nature of a glance backward over the period just covered, to trace the beginnings of the war, and to realize wherein lay the weakness of the government; the second, in the nature of a verification of these statements as to the changed character of the movement, and the absurd and temporary results which marked this stage of its history. Such a bird's-eye view of this phase of the Revolution, if accompanied by an effort to link together the two epochs, will give the student at the outset a grasp of the Revolution as a whole, which will assist him materially in fitting together the otherwise isolated events with which he will presently come in more intimate contact.

An editorial might also be introduced when the war became general, i.e., after the execution of the King, the caption being "The Meaning of the War." This exercise will not only bring out the great change in the Revolution, but will also afford an opportunity of a proper approach to the crisis of 1793, as will be seen by reading the following specimens selected from the work of the class-room:

THE MEANING OF THE WAR.

Looking back upon the events connected with this new war with Europe, it hardly seems as yet to have been the means of bringing about any appreciable change for the betterment of existing conditions in France. Though it is true that France is now an established republic, as a direct result of the war, yet this change has only succeeded, so far, in promoting the causes of disorder and fanaticism. The government is weak, and its weakness has not been remedied by the execution of Louis XVI on January 21. The whole country is undoubtedly in immediate danger of

¹ Western Europe, p. 574.

an invasion by the united powers of Europe. The fortress of Verdun has been taken from France, and the capture of Mayence and several other more or less important towns on the Rhine has not been of material value to France, any more than has the occupation of the Spanish Netherlands and Savoy.

How many throughout this country of ours really understand the meaning of this war? Understand the connection with England, now our worst enemy? Previous to this, England has been in sympathy with us. To-day she is, resulting from our rebellious tendencies, a mighty power waging war against us. Then, why at war with every neighbor we have? Do we realize our position and possibly our outcome? We have not even what we might call an established governing body of our own. Yet, we attempt, yes defy, our neighbors and the other countries throughout Europe. Think! are we truly in a condition to fight?

The interdependence of the foreign war with the course of events in France can be brought out by arranging in parallel columns, with the date at the left, the chief events which transpired on the frontier as a part of the military movements, and, in a separate column, those taking place within the country itself. An arrangement of this sort will show the student at a glance that it was the manifesto of Brunswick which precipitated the attack upon the Tuileries of August 10, and the capture of Longwy and the investment of Verdun, which prompted the September massacres less than a month later. A simple diagram might be used, consisting of a dotted line, to indicate the course of the war; a continuous line to show the progress of events upon the inside. These lines could be connected by perpendiculars where there was clear evidence of close dependence or interaction. Better yet, curved lines, intersecting at various points, could be used. This exercise could also be assigned for review purposes if the teacher so desired.

The same plan could be employed for treating the isolated incidents of this period, as was suggested for the dramatic portion of the epoch from 1789 to 1792. The treason of Dumouriez, the Declaration of Brunswick, and the two attacks upon the Tuileries lend themselves readily to such treatment, and become more real to the student in proportion as he sets his own imagination at work upon them, as the following results testify:

THINGS MOVING FAST IN FRANCE.

Paris despatches bring news to the effect that war has been declared on Austria and Prussia. This event seems to be most natural to the events that have preceded it. A gradual overturning of a monarchy is bound to interest other monarchies. As a result, Prussia and Austria, fearing a rebellion of the same kind, will attempt to suppress this one.

One can easily figure out the outcome of such a war. Unless some new military genius is uncovered, France will probably be beaten on every side. The entire army of France does not number over 80,000. They are, on the whole, disorganized. The full Prussian army is, alone, apart from its allies, close to treble the size of this force.

TUILERIES ATTACKED.

MOB ANGERED AND AROUSED BY THE DECLARATION OF WAR INVADES THE PALACE.

Yesterday, August 10, the populace again invaded the palace and forced the king to take refuge in a building in which the Assembly was in session.

This act was committed by men who were furiously against His Majesty and strongly in favor of establishing a republic. Some of these vagabonds took possession of the city hall, and even went so far as to occupy the seats of the municipal council. They, in other words, took the government in their control.

GREAT INSURRECTION LED BY DANTON! MANDAT MURDERED! KING, WITH FAMILY, SEEKS REFUGE IN ASSEMBLY!

August 10.—Angered by the proclamation of Brunswick and led by the popular chief, Danton, the men of Paris attacked the Assembly to-day. Great was the commotion when, after gaining entrance over headless guardsmen, made so by themselves, the mob murdered Mandat as he was about to leave the hall. With difficulty the king, surrounded by his family, sought refuge under the protection of the trembling Assembly. The Swiss guards of the Palace were killed, and then forward marching to the Tuileries, they sacked that great building as their climax.

WAR PANIC BRINGS ON TERRIBLE MASSACRE OF ARISTOCRATIC PRISONERS.

With the Duke of Brunswick at the front and 3,000 aristocrats at the rear, Paris has been in a dangerous position. Danton, urging enlistments, has feared to leave Paris for fear of an outbreak of aristocrats. This problem was satisfactorily, though bloodily solved. A frenzied mob attacked the various prisons on September 2, 3 and 4, and brought more than 1,000 victims to the guillotine with practically no trial.

This bloody act has brought the thinking classes to severely blame the mob. It is an outrage to the civilized world. Revolution has been brought into disrepute by hasty action.

Nibles more indignant and seeking revenge. Danton, being approached, excuses action. "Blast my memory," he thundered forth to reporters, "Blast my memory, if you will, but France, let France be free."

KING LOUIS EXECUTED. NO TRIAL. DIES AS A MARTYR. PARIS MOB JUBILANT.

Paris, January 21.—For the first time in history, France is without a king. King Louis was hastily tried and condemned to death by a *small majority* of the Convention. The king did not speak one word during his trial. As he mounted the scaffold slowly, the ruffians jeered at him. As Louis's body fell into the pool of blood, his groans, if there were any, were drowned by the cries of "Republique Francaise" which the mob shouted.

The Paris mob is half mad with delight and are running through the streets in crowds shouting and crying for the new republic of France.

The struggle on the part of the people to evolve a satisfactory form of government out of the turmoil and stress of these eventful years should not be overlooked in handling this phase of the Revolution. The year 1793 should receive its meed of emphasis as the *great crisis* in the Revolution, both within the country and upon its frontiers. France faced utter annihilation at the hands of traitors within and of foreign foes without.

A New Method of Teaching History

BY G. S. GREENE, WEST PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL FOR BOYS.

In the past three years, the old and traditional method of daily recitations in the teaching of history has aroused increasing and ever recurrent doubts and misgivings within me. Many of the suggestions in educational journals from the pens of experienced history teachers were very wholesome and aided appreciably in producing better results. Nevertheless, the conviction remained with me that the desired results were not forthcoming and, despite my best efforts and a mind open to new methods, results would not be secured.

In the final analysis, moreover, of these helpful suggestions I was compelled to admit that we were but putting new patches on old wine skins.

True, the syllabi, now used in many secondary schools as well as colleges as guides to the student in the devious paths and bypaths of history, have been a great improvement over the old and inherently defective method. But still it remains a question in my mind whether the average secondary student uses a syllabus judiciously and wisely or, on the other hand and what is more probable, whether he does not use it quite superficially and hence ineffectively. Unless the boy or girl put the flesh and blood and sinew into the frame, it will have little or no meaning for him, let alone interest.

According to this new method two of the three periods that the school curriculum assigns to history may be called "preparation" periods.

At the beginning of one of these periods ten to fifteen minutes may be used at the teacher's discretion in rapid-fire questioning to bring out the salient features of the previous day's lesson and connecting the old material with the new or in judiciously reading from the sources. The remaining minutes of the period are left to the student to fill in the logical and comprehensive outline which is on the board before him. The teacher then goes around the class giving his attention to the individual student, clearing up points of obscurity and offering timely suggestions here and there.

Of course, it is imperative that the teacher thus inspecting the loose-leaf note books in the class room work, impress upon the student the necessity of analyzing the thought first and then putting it into his own words. Some of this preparation should, however, be done at home or in the study period.

In the third period of the week the written work of the student is handed in and the whole period is given up to recitation on the assignments of the two previous preparation periods.

As to the method employed here much is left to the teacher's discretion. Following the outline too closely does not seem advisable to me. The charts and maps aid materially in making this an "illumination day" as it has been aptly termed.

Moreover, it has been my own experience that carefully chosen quotations from other authors form interesting sidelights to the study. These can be garnered from one's whole field of experience and can be easily memorized or conveniently retained on small cards.

Allow the student in this way to fill in this outline in the class room, and figuratively speaking, clothe the thought in the garment of his own language and you will discover that even the mediocre student displays a most commendable pride in his own handiwork. Further, give him a teacher of sympathy and resourcefulness, the student, especially a boy, will give the best that he has within him, joyously and eagerly. The history hour, instead of being monotonous to the pupil and teacher, will be one of glorious anticipation.

It would be well, perhaps, to touch upon the advantages of the new method from the viewpoint of psychology. We all know how quickly the adult untrained mind makes its generalizations which often are not only untrue, but positively dangerous. So, too, is the immature and growing mind of the high school boy prone to grave errors of judgment in his generalizations. Partial concepts are, alas, too often the result. He will picture feudal Europe with castles where entrancingly beautiful and eminently virtuous ladies are always attended by chivalrous knights, always brave and courteous and true-hearted. In the later days of his maturity he may or may not be disillusionized. In either case it is doing him a great injustice to allow him to overemphasize this phase of life in the Middle Ages and fail to see that a very clear understanding of the history of the church is absolutely essential to an understanding of the Middle Ages or to ignore some other development of like importance. With the new method such a mistake would not be likely to occur. With it his sense of historical proportion is developed—a-very-much-to-be-desired result. In short, his generalizations are not only safe and sane, but assume their proper places in his historical perspective.

From the standpoint of the teacher who has become imbued with a deep sense of his responsibility, the new method is of incalculable advantage. Why? might be asked. The answer is simple. The teacher experiences a pleasurable sense of satisfaction in seeing that the student has received what he believes to be the best possible presentation of the subject matter. The zealous teacher, well-meaning though he may be in his fine enthusiasm, too often wanders off into digressions of particular interest to himself as a specialist, but quite as often usurping time which rightly belongs to other phases of the subject of like or even greater importance. To such errors the new method is a talisman. We are saved from ourselves.

Perhaps a criticism may be made that the study

of history in this way may lose its cultural value, that the atmosphere is lost because of restrictions upon the teacher who thus cannot display his erudition to the class. These objections depend, of course, upon the teacher and his personality. If he feels the pleasurable thrill of the artist in conducting a recitation so as to secure the best possible results, again if he enjoys using that skill that comes from experience and if he is resourceful, sympathetic and alert, then these objections will vanish into thin air.

Then, too, by a kindly suggestion here or a word of explanation there, he will be able to help the individual boy far more than he could in the old daily recitation method. Indeed, the reason for the existence of many good private schools is the individual attention which a boy receives in small classes. Now by the new method the teacher who feels that his trust is sacred can be of great aid to a boy who would

otherwise hopelessly flounder around and in the end be ship-wrecked.

In a class studying the renaissance during a preparation period, plates of great paintings, photographs of magnificent Gothic cathedrals contrasted with those of the renaissance, may be passed around the class for inspection without interfering with the progress of the work in hand. In like manner, in Roman, Greek or Egyptian history, post card photographs of the temples of the ancients, their gods, their heroes and their amphitheatres, forms of dress, coins and the like, may be viewed by the class.

In general, this new method lends to the subject of history a dignity which rightfully belongs to it, but which unfortunately it often lacks in the secondary schools. It creates a highly commendable self-activity in the student. Measured by results, it seems to me the best of methods.¹

Word Study in History Teaching

BY P. G. LAUTZ, A.M., OF THE HIGH SCHOOL, PETOSKY, MICH.

Each of the several subjects in the high school curriculum has a phraseology more or less its own. This includes common as well as proper nouns, with their derivatives. In the sciences, we come in almost daily contact with the words, spontaneous, potential, mechanical, momentum, conservation, metric system, and gravitation; in mathematics, with the words hypothetical, vertical, rectangular, ratio, simultaneous, horizontal, diagonal, axiomatic, acute, altitude, and radius; in English, with the words romance, classical, essay, style, narrative, discourse, exposition, climax, catastrophe, and characteristics. What an enriched vocabulary the student should have at the end of his course, if he has become the complete master of even a part of the words most used in the study of the different subjects! By this, I do not mean that he should merely show a sign of intelligence when he sees or hears the words in question, but that he should make them his own—be able to use them correctly in written or spoken language. To do this, he must be able to spell, pronounce, and define them accurately. Of course, the factor of memory must not be overlooked; but what greater aid to memory is there, than a thorough understanding of the thing to be remembered?

In no vocabulary peculiar to the various high school subjects, are the words of more practical value in later life than those found in the study of history and civics. Take for example words as politics, constitution, arbitration, initiative, referendum, short-ballot, economics, democracy, contraband, law, federal, militarism, judicial, executive, legislative, Caesarism, tariff, demagogue, league, municipal, chivalry, industrial, institution, social, diplomacy, monopoly, and revolution; they must be a part of every person's vocabulary if he is to converse intelligently on the common topics of the day. The value

in later life of this feature of history study cannot be disputed. Nor must we neglect the importance of this subject in the recitation, the examination, and preparation of lessons. If the pupil cannot spell, pronounce, and define the common and proper nouns found in the daily assignments, how can he make a thorough preparation, and intelligent recitation, or write a presentable examination paper? Does the student do these three things? I do not mean perfectly, of course, but does he do them reasonably well? Recall the many instances where students have risen to recite, become confused, and then sat down in embarrassment, saying 'that they did know the answer, but could not express it. What was the trouble? Recall the blunders in pronunciation, the incoherent answers, the misspelled words of the examination papers. I have found by observation, that the inability to understand the words of the text leads to many failures in recitation, which we usually credit to a lack of concentration in study. These defects cannot be attributed entirely to the causes under discussion, but sufficient responsibility can be laid to this source to make it worth while to discuss possible methods of improvement.

There seem to be four places where opportunity for improvement in spelling, in pronunciation, and in definition present themselves: first, in the introduction to the course; secondly, in the assignment of the lessons; thirdly, in the apparatus at hand to help the pupil in his preparation of the lesson; and fourthly, in the recitation.

1. *Introducing the Course.*

At the beginning of the course, the teacher should lay stress upon the importance of the study of new words in connection with the proper preparation and

¹ From "The Teacher" (Philadelphia), May, 1915.

recitation of the lessons in history. The pupil should be made to see that an enlarged vocabulary will be acquired by taking the course, and that this in turn, will help him in his general reading, in his understanding of public addresses, in his other studies, and in improving his conversational powers. This must be repeated at appropriate intervals during the course, when specific examples of the value of words can be cited. "Follow-ups" bring results in history teaching as well as in the business world.

Time should be taken in the first few lessons to indicate the purpose and value of foot-notes, the proper use and importance of the pronouncing index, the dictionary, and other apparatus helpful in historical word study. As the course progresses, the teacher can find occasion to impress some of the fundamental rules of spelling, of pronunciation, and of definition upon the pupil. Suggestions regarding certain aids to memory might not be entirely out of place in a history course. Time so spent—seemingly lost—brings rich returns in expediting the preparation and recitation of lessons.

2. *The Assignment.*

There are two methods of assigning a history lesson. In the first, its limits are set in topics from the text-book, with an oral explanation of what should be emphasized. The teacher should also have the pupil underscore all the new words and expressions. In the second method of assignment, a written outline or a list of questions is given to the pupil. In this case, it is very easy to list the words that he will be expected to spell, pronounce, and define correctly.

3. *The Apparatus for Preparation.*

Next comes the preparation of the words assigned, which we shall discuss largely from the standpoint of the apparatus that should be at hand to help the pupil. His greatest source of help should be found in his text-book, which is too often lacking in that help. It will be taken by consent that the author should convey his thoughts in words not too difficult for the average high school pupil. Yet we find the too abundant use of difficult words to be one of the chronic faults of high school texts, especially those in ancient history. There should be a complete pronouncing index with the difficult words spelled out with diacritic marks. Professor Harding, in his new medieval and modern history, has taken a step that will be very helpful to the pupil, by explaining the pronunciation of each new word as it occurs in the text. In this day of efficiency and time-saving devices, why should we force the pupil to turn to the index each time a new word confronts him, or what is worse, force him to consult the dictionary? For in some of our history texts, he will look in vain for help in the index. Then, too, the average high school pupil is inert and careless, prone to slip over strange and difficult words, trusting to the context for the meaning and to guess work for the pronunciation. For these same reasons, I think a good text-book should have numerous footnotes explaining new terms

where they are not properly explained in the text. Some one will now say the pupil does not read footnotes. Don't you think he will be more likely to read a footnote than to consult a dictionary, which is probably some distance from his desk? And then, too, he will probably get more from a single footnote definition, framed in simple language, than from a five-minute consultation of the dictionary, trying to distinguish between the noun and verb forms of a word in question. Finally, when he finds the proper form, he must read four or five definitions of the word, depending upon its use. Can we wonder that he sometimes leaves the dictionary knowing less than before he consulted it? The dictionary is rather foreboding and complex to the high school pupil, never so satisfactory as a concise definition or explanation by the author, fitted to the sense in which the word is used. After consulting the dictionary, how many high school freshmen could distinguish between slavery and serfdom, morals and religion, feudalism and chivalry, empire and kingdom, federation and confederation, or state and government?

Writers of text-books will render the teachers a service when they learn to define in their own text-books, and possibly give the derivation, of such words as papal bull, desmesne land, heraldry, heresy, convocation, ecclesiastical, canon, coup d'état, classical, noncombatants, society, Christian era, civilization, attainder, and letters of marque and reprisal.

There is also a too frequent use of proper names without an accompanying explanation sufficient to enable the pupils to understand them and see their connection with the narrative. If left to his own initiative, the average student will skip over these references with results only too obvious.

I anticipate the teacher who will contend that one of the objects of a course on history is to teach the pupil the use of reference books. Admitting this, we must not let it interfere with teaching him history. It will be taken as axiomatic, I think, that the text should be as nearly perfect as possible, within itself. Professor Cheyney has covered this point in the preface to his *Short History of England*: "I have omitted altogether statements and allusions the significance of which could not be explained in the book; and have tried on the other hand, to give a clear and adequate explanation of all matters that have been taken up. It is true that this practice may seem to disregard the teacher, who would presumably be competent to explain those things to which the author alludes and to interpret what he merely states. On the other hand, the student must usually deal with the text-book when he is alone, and may be glad to have everything clear at first; while the well qualified teacher will find a more useful and interesting function in testing comprehension, providing further illustrations, drawing out international relations, and adding personal details to the necessarily general statements of the text-book."

In possibly a majority of the high schools of this country, there is either such a lack of library facilities or such a lack of inclination on the part of the

teacher to encourage the use of outside references, that it is but fair to the student to give him within its covers, everything that will be essential to the understanding of the text.

Most teachers find opportunity to encourage the use of reference books by amplifying the text through the assignment of topics and questions for special investigation.

4. *The Recitation.*

Recitation upon these words can take place at the beginning of the hour or may be brought up as they occur in the lesson. The first method will bring about greater emphasis on this phase of the work and make pupils feel more responsible for it, while the latter is seemingly more logical. The method of the recitation can be varied by sending pupils to the board to spell and write out definitions of the words, by having them write them on paper to be handed in or exchanged and graded, or by oral recitation. Writing a new word on the board and having the class pronounce it in unison will be found helpful. Repeated drills on some difficult words like hieroglyphics, Peloponnesus, institution, common law, economics, ecclesiastical and episcopacy will be found necessary before they are mastered. The pupils should be encouraged to define new terms in their own words and use them in their recitation. Mistakes in spelling, in pronunciation, and in use of words should never be allowed to slip by unchallenged. Close markings and reductions on examination papers along this line will emphasize its importance and tend to make the pupil more careful. To arouse interest, I have found it an excellent plan to make out a list of twenty-five to fifty words used in the course and hand copies to each pupil. The next day we have a spelling and definition match; I find that it serves as an excellent means of review and never fails to arouse interest.

Although this paper emphasizes the value of word study in history, it must not be concluded that the writer would reduce history to a mere study of words. However, I do believe it is a vital matter and a phase of history teaching much neglected by the younger teacher especially. A close insistence upon the correct spelling, pronunciation, and definition, of new and difficult words will undoubtedly hasten the preparation and recitation of the lessons and lead to more accurate and interesting discussions.

"The Use of a Reference Library" is the title of a reprint of Chapter 7 of John P. Slater's "Freshman Rhetoric," published by D. C. Heath & Co. The chapter deals with the general reference works, with bibliographical aids, with systems of cataloguing, indexes to periodicals, special bibliographies, and assignments for practice work in the library.

The Grammar School History Debating Class

BY WILBUR F. GORDY, HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT.

Years ago when I taught history in the highest grade of a grammar school, in this city, I found it of great advantage, at the very beginning of the year, to organize the class into a debating club, with a constitution and by-laws, a president, and other necessary officers. While I wished the pupils to get some understanding of what a constitution means and some slight notions of parliamentary rules, the main purpose was to stimulate an interest in history and intelligent and thoughtful work in the study of history. Any device or method which breaks up mechanical routine and changes the pupil from a passive to an active, alert attitude, is worth much if there is to be any vital contact with the historic past.

We did not have formal debates oftener than once a month, and each of these occupied only a single recitation period. The subjects for discussion, for most of the debates, were historical, although no historical subject was discussed until it had been carefully studied in connection with the regular history lessons. Before any debate took place, a leader was appointed for both the affirmative and the negative side, and the other members of the class were permitted to choose the side they preferred. An executive committee, in consultation with the teacher, appointed, from the members of the class, two leaders, the presiding officer, and three judges. Although the teacher was present, he tried to remain in the background, for his aim was to give such an impulse to the work that the discussion would be general and all would feel that they must strive to make the debate successful. While everything was simply done by the children, yet no debater could speak before addressing the chair and receiving due recognition.

For this formal debating the class had received much preparation in the informal discussions which were an important part of the daily recitations. Each pupil was expected and required to bring into every recitation a written question. At first many of the questions were so framed that they could be answered by yes or no. The teacher, however, by showing that such questions were not good because they encouraged guessing and therefore did not lead to any thinking, soon found the pupils asking questions which called for thoughtful answers and required thoughtful preparation. A good original question puts the student in a very different mental attitude from what he is in when he is merely trying to absorb the facts stated in a book. Such absorption, to be sure, demands active effort; but after all, the facts may be learned without much if any thought as to their meaning in connection with other facts with which they stand related, especially as causes or results. To ask thoughtful questions is to study in a real sense, for to study is to think, to grasp the significance of facts in their bearing upon other facts, and to get at the value of the facts as they illuminate the life of the past in its vital bearing upon the life of the present and, most important of all, upon the life of the learner himself.

It goes without saying that many of these questions were childish, as was much of the discussion. These, however, were only the outward results. The vital, inner results upon the intellectual and moral life of the children themselves were the real measure of the value of this method of historical study. From that point of view the method was highly productive.

It was neither practicable nor in fact desirable to have

all these questions or even a part of them answered in every recitation. But they were always handed in and the teacher picked out the best ones to be used in the class at the following recitation. In review lessons the entire period was sometimes devoted to discussing these questions. At such times the attention was marked. The class was keenly responsive, the interest often intense, and the mental effort of a virile quality. The pupils learned the all-important fact that most historical questions are capable of more than one interpretation, that truth is many-sided, and that it is not wise to reach a conclusion without weighing the essential facts that have a bearing upon such conclusion. To learn to weigh facts with discrimination and to develop a judicial and tolerant spirit are two invaluable results of the study of history. And it should be remembered that while such results are being achieved the pupils are acquiring not only the true historic temper and spirit but also learning how to study history with a view to getting at its vital truths.

In carrying out this plan of work, when the pupils began the study of the slavery question the boys were requested to play the part of South Carolina slaveholders and the girls that of New England anti-slavery people. In discussing the tariff question as it was before the country about 1828-32, the boys were required to write letters to the New England manufacturers explaining why they desired free trade, and the girls stated in letters to the South Carolina slaveholders why they favored a high protective tariff. The writing of such letters called for imagination and intelligent reasoning. Moreover, it helped the pupils to see clearly the two conflicting points of view on the important national problem of the protective system.

This discussion touched upon the sectional differences brought about by the use of free labor in the North and slave labor in the South. It was agreed that in all the discussion of the slavery question the teacher should give no aid to either side. The boys representing the slave-owners and the girls the anti-slavery people of the North were to get their own facts in books which they read under the direction of the teacher. And the debating did not develop very much until each side had done considerable reading. The result, for many of the class certainly was a willingness and desire, under the stimulus of a keen interest in the subject, to read as much as their time permitted.

All this work, the class knew, was leading up to the final and most important debate of the year. This was a real event in the history of the class. The debate was public. Parents and friends,—especially graduates of the school,—were present, and men and women of prominence in the community acted as judges. The question was this: "Resolved, that slavery was a social, moral, industrial and political evil to the South," and the side that did the best debating was declared the winner.

Now it so happened that in the course of time the grandson of Harriet Beecher Stowe, who was then living in Hartford, entered the class. His teacher was somewhat curious to learn what might be this boy's attitude and what the attitude of his friends toward his impersonating a slaveholder and representing, for the time being, the rich planter's point of view toward slaveholding and the system of slavery in the South. As a matter of fact, the boy was not only warmly interested but developed so much ability as a debater that the boys of his class chose him as their leader for the public debate referred to above. This debating experience was most interesting to the teacher and most profitable to the boys and girls in his class.

Reports from the Historical Field

NOTES.

The National Security League (31 Pine Street, New York City) will be glad to send, free of charge, to any school, teacher or scholar, interesting material for debates, essays, orations, etc., relating to the need of our country for an adequate military and naval defense.

"The Immigrants in America Review," of New York, announced last July prizes of \$250 and of \$100 for the best papers upon the topic, "What America Means and How to Americanize the Immigrant." The competition was designed to encourage the study of the problems of the new immigrant in connection with the celebration of Independence Day.

A new digest of current events named "Information" appeared April 1. The magazine is published both monthly and quarterly in cumulative numbers, and may be subscribed for either in the monthly edition or the quarterly edition, or both. The publishers, R. R. Bowker Co., New York City, aim to make the journal particularly helpful for teachers and classes in the study of current topics.

"Civic Education for Immigrants" is the title of a new series of circulars to be issued by the United States Bureau of Education. The first one deals with "Public Citizenship Reception to New Americans," and gives accounts of such receptions in Los Angeles, Philadelphia, Cleveland and Baltimore.

The Arthur H. Clark Co., of Cleveland, O., have issued over 150 special lists of new and second-hand books which they have in stock. Their lists run from Aeronautics to Zoology, and touch between these extremes Americana, Autograph Letters, Church History, Clock-making, Government Publications, Methodism, Precious Stones, Revolutionary War and Oscar Wilde.

"Teaching," the publication of the State Normal School at Emporia, Kan., devotes the number for July to the subject of vacation activities, including such material as vacation drama, story-telling, playgrounds, school excursions, handwork and vacation activities in Kansas towns.

Prof. Clarence W. Alvord has published in Volume 1, No. 1, of the Minnesota History Bulletin, a paper entitled, "The Relation of the State to Historical Work." The paper is a plea for stricter government supervision and care of historical material. The writer gives instances of the destruction of family and public archives and documents through carelessness of the owner or custodians. He urges not only State-supported care of archives, but also State-supported historical work of a high character.

Figures compiled by the United States Bureau of Education show that the total sale of text-books for use in public, elementary and high schools amounted in 1913 to \$14,261,768, an annual expenditure of each child in the public school of 78 3/10 cents. As the total expenditure of each child for all school purposes is approximately \$38.31, the amount expended for text-books is only about 2 per cent. of the total.

The National Foreign Trade Council of New York City is investigating preparedness of American young men for

engaging in foreign trade. It has appointed a committee on Commercial Education for Foreign Trade, composed of both business men and educators. The opinion of officials of some one thousand corporations and firms is being obtained upon questions respecting the efficiency of language instruction in the high school, the efficiency of commercial instruction in the high school, and the efficiency for commercial work of graduates of colleges.

The English Historical Association published in June, 1915, its fourth annual bulletin of historical literature, in which works published in England during the preceding year are listed under eight different periods of history, beginning with ancient history and closing with the nineteenth century and after. The lists on the several periods are made by the following historical scholars: M. O. B. Caspari, Miss Alice Gardner, Prof. F. N. Powicke, Miss R. R. Reid, Prof. A. F. Pollard, Prof. C. H. Firth, Mr. C. G. S. Veitch and Prof. F. J. C. Hearnshaw.

Mr. William John Cooper, who during the past five years has been largely instrumental in reconstructing the work of history in the Berkeley High School, has accepted a position as head of the high school and supervisor of elementary schools in Oakland, Cal.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The annual spring meeting of the New England History Teachers' Association was held at Worcester, Mass., on Friday and Saturday, April 30, May 1. The session of Friday evening was held in the Assembly Hall of the High School of Commerce. A most interesting address was given by President Ira N. Hollis, of Worcester Polytechnic Institute, who spoke on the "North Sea in Naval Warfare." President Hollis spoke informally, drawing largely from his knowledge of affairs as former chief engineer of the United States Navy.

The session of Saturday morning was held in the Physics Laboratory room of the Classical High School. The subject was the "Study and Teaching of Recent American History." The discussion was opened with papers by Mr. R. Eston Phye, of the Hartford Public High School, who spoke on "Recent American History from the Viewpoint of the Secondary School. Professor Charles R. Lingley, of Dartmouth College, followed with a paper on the "Use of Autobiographical Material." The discussion was continued by Prof. Frederick J. Turner, of Harvard University, and Prof. John Spencer Bassett, of Smith College, and others.

Luncheon was served at the Hotel Bancroft, with the largest attendance at any luncheon outside of Boston. Prof. George H. Haynes, of Worcester Polytechnic Institute, was the guest of the Association. The president of the Association for 1915 is Prof. Sidney B. Fay, of Smith College.

Additional numbers of the Civic Education series of bulletins issued by the Bureau of Education at Washington includes No. 6 on "Civic Education in Secondary Schools," the special topic being "Survey of Vocations and Economics," No. 7 on history, and No. 8 on standards for judging civic education. These bulletins may be had on application to the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.

The Normal School at Kirksville, Mo., publishes a series of bulletins, many of which are interesting to teachers of history and government. Number 3 in the history and government series contains the following articles: "An Indian Mound Expedition," by Prof. Andrew Otterson; "Some Neglected Phases of Ancient History," by Prof. Joseph L. Kingsbury; "Description of a Course in the

Teaching of History," by Prof. E. M. Violette; "Description of a Course in the Teaching of History," by Prof. Eugene Fair, and an article on the "Missouri History in the Schools," by Professor Violette.

The whole bulletin is of interest to history teachers.

The District Conference on History Teaching, which was held at Gary, Ind., on February 26, 27, 1915, under the auspices of the Extension Division of the Indiana University, has received a permanent record through the printing of the papers there presented in the Indiana University Bulletin, Vol. 13, No. 10. The pamphlet is distributed, free of charge, in the State of Indiana. For outside circulation it can be obtained for the price of 25 cents. The papers are divided into two groups: First, those dealing with the practical teaching problems in history; second, those dealing with the standards in history and civics for secondary schools. Two of the papers have already been published in THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, and others with the consent of the Extension Division will appear in the near future. Prof. Oscar H. Williams deserves much of the credit for carrying through one of the most interesting and important conferences on history teaching which has ever been called together.

REPORT OF THE CONFERENCE OF HISTORY TEACHERS, GEORGE PEABODY COLLEGE FOR TEACHERS, NASHVILLE, TENN., JULY 20, 1915.

The Second Conference for History Teachers in the George Peabody College for Teachers was held July 20, 1915, under the direction of Dr. St. George L. Sioussat, of Vanderbilt University; Dr. W. L. Fleming, of Louisiana State University; Dr. R. P. Brooks, of the University of Georgia; Dr. F. M. Fling, of the University of Nebraska; Dr. E. C. Brooks, of Trinity College, and Dr. C. A. McMurry, Dr. W. F. Russell and Mr. Thomas Alexander, of Peabody College. Dr. Sioussat presided. Mr. R. E. Womack was chosen to act as secretary. The chairman called attention to the second history exhibit of the Peabody Summer Quarter, displayed in the room in which the conference was held. This consisted of maps, charts, pictures, text-books, source books, and other materials auxiliary to the teaching of history. After the announcements concerning the exhibit were made, Mr. Thomas Alexander delivered a short address on the teaching of history in the elementary schools of Germany. He sketched the history of historical instruction in these schools, spoke of the purpose of historical instruction from the standpoint of German teachers, told how the oral method of instruction predominated, and closed by reading a lesson which was reported stenographically.

Dr. Fling next spoke on "What History is and Why it Should be Taught." He defined history as "the science of the unique evolution of man in his activities as a social being." He declared that men have tried to make of history a natural science, which it is not. Since this is true, history cannot be taught from types. The teacher must treat it as a whole, so that our present stage of development may be appreciated. Condensation will, therefore, be necessary, and so each must work out his philosophy of history, must have a set of values. Social institutions, he declared, are only a means toward the development of a spiritual individual. In history we are dealing with purposeful activity, striving after the biggest value in life. It is a "struggle to put a spiritual content into life." The work of the history writer and teacher is an absolute necessity. We must know just what part of our world problem remains unsolved, so that each generation may

take it up where the one preceding left off. Dr. Fling declared that the trouble with Germany to-day is that the schools are training patriots who have no regard for world-society or world-institutions. Perhaps the United States has a better conception of world-society than any other country.

The last address during the conference was made by Prof. E. C. Brooks, of Trinity College, on the subject, "History in the Elementary Schools in the United States." He emphasized the use of biography, of stories, of type-studies, suited to the age and development of the pupil rather than a condensed text-book. Since children have little sense of time, there is no place for chronological study in the elementary grades. What the pupil needs is plenty of concrete illustrations which will give him an insight into man's activity in society. Later, when a text-book is put into his hands, the interesting material learned earlier falls into its proper place.

After the program was rendered, Dr. McMurtry led in a very interesting discussion on the mooted question of type-studies.

The exhibit was left open for the remainder of the week.

Among the teachers present were Thomas Alexander, Agnes Amis, F. M. Fling, Rosa Wyatt, Thomas Dyke, Iona Gilliam, R. P. Brooks, E. Villio, Dora Register, Lula J. Creelius, Hattie B. Moseley, Nellie V. Mullen, T. Robert Owens, Robert N. Chenault, Mabel Jones, Sue M. Powers, Carrie B. Smith, Elizabeth Nixon, D. M. Russell, Mrs. C. A. McMurtry, Mr. C. A. McMurtry, E. C. Brooks, R. E. Womack, A. W. Birdwell, Margaret S. Mosby, Margaret M. Heard, Willie Jones, R. Cora Armistead, Q. M. Smith, R. E. Bruner, Pattie Sue Arnold, G. C. Watkins, J. R. DeMoss, Bartie Moore, Charles E. Little, Alfred I. Roehm.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

DEALEY, JAMES QUAYLE. *The Growth of American State Constitutions from 1776 to the End of 1914.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1915. Pp. 308. \$1.40.

In the field of American constitutional law and history it has been the wont to fix the attention rather exclusively upon the federal and national aspects of our public law. This attitude has left one great side and portion of our constitutional growth untold. It has been a serious mistake to neglect to appreciate the importance of the constitutions of forty-eight States. A study of the activities of the Federal system, of course, holds the advantage of both national and dramatic interest, while the history of a single State has but a local and prosaic caste. But a comparative study of the origins and growth of the organic laws of nearly half a hundred commonwealths possesses a broad and vital interest and importance not surpassed by the Federal system. The States together perform the largest part of governmental activities, their fundamental laws concern more vitally the interests of the citizen, and reflect more closely the attitude of the people toward the social and economic problems of the day than the national constitution, so that it is high time these State laws should be given their due place. Professor Dealey's volume is opportune, and itself is an indication of the growing attention given to State constitutions and government in the colleges and in the public mind.

The volume has three parts. The first is historical, tracing the development of the constitutions from the

short and simple documents of Revolutionary days to the modern types of complexity and verbosity. In this stretch of one hundred and forty years, five periods are marked off: the Revolutionary era of first experiences, the period of moderate growth, 1801-1830, the rapid democratizing movement of the middle period, the heated era of reconstruction, and the recent age of radical experimentation. Part two analyzes the provisions of the present-day laws. It covers the written constitution, the processes of amendment and revision, the bills of rights and religious provisions, the three traditional departments of government and the electorate as the fourth, representation, constitutional regulations of important interests and a separate chapter on the peculiarities of the New England constitutions. The last part includes one chapter in summary of the main tendencies and marked lines of development of past growth, and two suggestive of improvements and prospects.

Each part has appended a well selected bibliography, and there is also a good general bibliography and a list of special references for the two chapters on reconstruction. The book is well written in a clear and sober style and well arranged. It has a value not only as a text-book, but as a manual for law-makers and citizens.

W. T. ROOT.

University of Wisconsin.

MATTINGLY, HAROLD. *Outlines of Ancient History. From the Earliest Times to the Fall of the Roman Empire in the West, A. D. 476.* Cambridge: University Press, 1914. Pp. 466. 10s. 6d.

In his preface the author of this book states that it is one of a series of three Outline Histories projected by the Syndics of the Cambridge University Press. This preliminary statement may help the reader at times to sympathize with the author in feeling that he is working to accomplish an assigned task, rather than spontaneously writing that in which he is most deeply interested and must perforce give the world. As a workman, the author shows tireless energy and conscientiousness. Indeed, one feels that he is at times over-nice in the matter of details. This is particularly true in his treatment of military, political and dynastic developments. As a case in point, one may read the opening chapter on the little-known "Beginnings of History," or the chapter which attempts to follow out the minutiae of changes ensuing upon the death of Alexander, or again, that other dull and unprofitable period in Roman History following the time of the Antonines when petty Roman Emperor did but succeed petty Roman Emperor to the accompaniment of insignificant war and murder. In such chapters as these the fell determination of the writer to omit nothing causes the book to assume the character of Homer's "Catalogue of Ships"—that classic but unreadable model of the enumerative style. On the other hand, when the author begins to delineate a character or a period in which he is vitally interested, he becomes masterly. His treatment of Alexander and his career of Socrates and what he means in the history of human thought of Julius Caesar, whom he explains as "brilliant but unorthodox;" of Augustus, whom he underestimates as a man of "exceptional talent without being troubled by inconvenient genius," all make the reader wish for more extended treatment by this convincing pen. In many of the briefer descriptions of men, too, while he yields to the limitations imposed by the boundaries of his task, he makes a single word or phrase do yeoman duty in the setting forth of character. His thinking is always surefooted, and even in the most intricate maze of dynastic change one feels confident that

the guide will come out all right. The only thing is that the path seems hardly worth the treading.

In the matter of emphasis, Mr. Mattingly yields to the temptation of the older conceptions of history. He sees too much importance in war and the rumors of war, and too little in the artistic, spiritual and literary elements of a nation's life. That is surely not a fair division of attention even in an outline history which dismisses the literature of the Augustan Age with a hurried mention of Virgil and forgets even Horace, yet follows every move of Orôdes or Phraates IV in far-away Parthia.

As to the exact niche which the book is destined to fill, it is hard to reach a conclusion. It is well equipped with pictures, maps and coin plates, but contains no bibliography and makes no acknowledgment of sources other than the general one in the preface. It is too comprehensive for a text, and yet makes no claim to the dimensions of a great reference work. It must serve, therefore, as a shelf volume for ready reference of the narrative type.

MAUD HAMILTON.

The Wisconsin High School of The University of Wisconsin.

ADAMS, JOHN QUINCY. Writings of. Edited by W. C. Ford. Vol. V, 1814-1816. New York: Macmillan Co., 1915. Pp. xxvii, 546. \$3.50.

Adams' writings of this period are almost wholly diplomatic in character. His interests had narrowed down, and it was obviously true of him, as he said it was of every American who "resided so long as five or six years in Europe," that he needed to "go home to be *new tempered*" (p. 331). On the other hand, he had plainly matured. His grasp of international law and of human affairs had grown firmer; his characterizations of men were sounder and less labored, and his heavy and obvious attempts at humor were giving way to the flashes of irony that distinguished his later years. He remains, however, an exceptionally poor guesser.

The center of interest in the first half of the volume is the negotiation at Ghent. The important documents are the letters to his wife, his dispatches to the Secretary of State, and his first drafts of notes to the British Commissioners, which were subsequently amended by the Commission as a whole. His other letters were very discreet, because of the chance that they might be opened. There is no single contribution of great moment, but the whole mass increases the vividness of our picture of that critical and fascinating period, already illustrated on so many sides. Particularly the importance of the publication by the American government of the first dispatches, is strongly emphasized. On the personal side it is evident that Adams was kinder than his tongue, and like many New Englanders, thought more highly of his colleagues than he allowed them to suppose.

The second half of the volume is concerned with the negotiations at London after the peace, and is more important than the first half, because less other material exists. Adams' discussions are exceptionally brilliant, and his tendencies to maintain without compromise every inch of the American position and to distrust the British government, so apparent later, seem to become fixed at this time. At the very end South America begins to loom on the horizon.

Aside from diplomacy, there are brief but interesting comparisons of Sweden, Holland (pp. 51-52), and Paris (p. 277) at different periods, and an animated discussion of Unitarian doctrine (pp. 431-436, 458-460). His description of the Hundred Days illustrates the quiet character of

Napoleon's triumph, but still more the self-absorption of the writer. He notices a social slight quite as one might in the piping times of peace.

The standard of editing continues to be a credit to American scholarship. The notes, somewhat more extensive than in the previous volumes, contain chiefly supplementary material from other published sources or from manuscripts in the Adams collection. On page 269 "town" should be "own."

CARL RUSSELL FISH.

University of Wisconsin.

STOUT, JOHN ELBERT. The High School: Its Function, Organization and Administration. New York: D. C. Heath & Co., 1914. Pp. viii, 322. \$1.50.

This book is addressed to high school administrators by a college professor of education, who has had long experience as teacher and principal, and in every chapter of his book he shows intimate knowledge of the American high school—its faults and needs.

If the high school is to meet the growing demands made upon it, the author believes and advocates a redefining of aims and a reorganization, and his book is an attempt to state the principles that should guide in the process of reorganization. The material is grouped in twenty-two chapters divided into two parts. Part I deals with the function of the high school. Here are stressed hitherto neglected functions of the high school—physical needs, employment of leisure time, work interests, social adjustments, and especially readjustments necessary to meet the needs of girls.

Part II is devoted to questions of organization and administration. The high school curriculum is examined from the standpoint of its historical development, and the influences responsible for the present status are pointed out. Considerable space is given to the subject matter taught in the high school from the point of view of organization for teaching purposes. Every department receives attention, but the social studies, science and English are treated most fully because of the author's conviction that these should contribute the chief means of secondary education.

A brief summary of some of the views expressed may be worth while. The play instinct of adolescents is not adequately provided for or properly directed in the modern high school. Science material should be reorganized. Botany, chemistry and physics are valuable terms only when they designate types of subjects having practical value for use in the high school. Reform in English work is needed in order to fit it more nearly to the capacities of students and to make it serve the interests of the community. The college entrance requirements in English are regarded as narrowing. The wall thus built up around literature should be torn down, and a place given to current literature of the right kind and a wider range generally secured. It is contended that too much time is now employed on over-emphasis upon a critical study of the restricted body of material used. As to composition, written work has been given relatively too much attention. In every-day life it has less value than oral.

As to mathematics the author is decidedly pessimistic. Too much attention is given to algebra. The whole field needs reorganization and the traditional divisions of arithmetic, algebra and geometry removed, resulting in a combination wherein geometry is to receive relatively more attention and algebra less. The total result to be a shortening of the time devoted to the study of mathematics.

Throughout the book the faults and shortcomings of the present-day high school are clearly pointed out. One

wishes that the author had found space for a fuller discussion of ways and means to remove the defects. Perhaps in a later book he will do so, and thereby place us in even greater debt to him.

The author has convictions and knows how to express them clearly, interestingly and convincingly. The book is well made up, with type of good size. There is an appendix giving typical high school courses, representing what larger schools are offering in the way of educational opportunity to the young people of their respective communities.

A. C. SIONG.

West Division High School, Milwaukee, Wis.

MACAULAY, T. B. *The History of England, from the Accession of James II.* With illustrations. Edited by C. H. Firth. Volume VI. London: Macmillan & Co., 1915. Pp. xv, 481. \$3.25.

By the appearance of the sixth volume of this beautiful series, the reviewer has spent his supply of laudatory adjectives, and can best say what doubtless is all that needs to be said that this which completes the set maintains to the full the abundance and excellence of illustration which its predecessors possess. It has, moreover, an additional value in that it supplies the index for all the volumes. This, consisting of 100 pages, has been especially prepared for this edition, and both corrects the errors of the original index and supplies its omissions. Its fullness is in keeping with the copiousness of the series, whose wealth is thus made easily accessible to student and reader. Both editor and publishers by the achievement of this well conceived scheme of illustration of Macaulay's great work have laid the reading public under much obligation to them.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

MORRIS, JOHN E. *Bannockburn*. New York: Putnams, 1914. Pp. 116. \$1.50.

This attractive little book, prepared by the author of the "Welsh Wars of Edward I," is in the nature of a centenary monograph. It is presented in such a pleasing dress, with its panoramic view and other illustrations, that one does not at first realize the scholarly character of the work. It is only after reading its careful discussions, and especially the thoughtful chapter upon "The Historians of Bannockburn," that we perceive its true worth as a contribution to the literature of the subject. The chapters upon "A Typical Edwardian Army" and "Tactics Before Bannockburn," as well as the closing chapter, are of distinct value to all teachers who would like to know how the English came to develop the ability to defeat the French so thoroughly at Crécy and Poitiers. As to the battle itself, the author adopts the view that it was fought mainly on the plain between the Bannock and the Forth, and supports this thesis in a very convincing manner. Although admitting Barbour's limitation as a historian he does not hesitate to accord him due honor: "One may, indeed, find fault with Barbour because he has made people think too much of the unimportant things, the digging of the pots, the deaths of Bohun and Argentine, the charge of the camp-followers, which things the thoughtless love to read, and think to be of more importance than the tactics. Yet he has shown us the real cause of the victory, namely, the steadiness of the pikemen, their ability to advance in good order, and the clever handling of the whole army of foot and light horse by a great tactician."

HENRY L. CANNON.

Leland Stanford, Junior, University.

Periodical Literature

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

Gabriel Monod, the editor of the "Revue Historique," has an interesting account of the importance of Paris to France of the Middle Ages in the May-June number of that review.

To the "Historische Zeitschrift" for June, Professor Oncken, of Heidelberg University, has contributed an able article on "Carl Schurz; or, Democracy and German-Americanism," in which he traces the influence of German politics on Schurz's career in America.

Those who have read Prof. George B. Adams' "Origin of the English Constitution" will be interested in his article in the July number of the "American Historical Review," which is written to commemorate the seventh centennial of Magna Carta. In this he shows that while there existed in the Middle Ages an idea of ministerial responsibility, which was indeed realized to a considerable extent—yet beyond the name and the mere idea, it was not connected with the modern conception of ministerial responsibility.

M. Serrano y Sano completes his study of Wilkinson and his treaty with Spain for the independence of Kentucky, 1787-97, in the current number of the *Revista de Archivos Bibliotecas y Museos*. The interest he shows in the fantastic projects of Carondelet makes this work of value to those who are studying the early history of St. Louis, as well as to students of Kentucky history.

The July number of the "National Review" contains a most interesting article on "The Germans and the Spanish Armada," by Ian D. Calvin. Mr. Calvin tries to prove that the Armada was largely financed by German money; that there were German ships in the fleet; that the plan of invasion was of German origin; that part of the Duke of Parma's invading army was German; and that the Armada was supplied with munitions of war by Germany.

The July number of the "Dublin Review" contains Canon Barry's interesting sketch of "the city of Constantine," in which he attempts to give the historical causes of its present position; Bernard Holland's readable sketch of Disraeli; A. H. Pollin's "The Submarine Campaign," an answer to his own earlier article on the submarine myth; Hilaire Belloc's "The Effect of Waterloo," which aims to divest this interesting battle of much of the myth and legend surrounding it; and an able defense of the neutrality of the Holy See by the Bishop of Northampton.

In the August "Forum," Luis Cabrera, Minister of Finance in Caranza's Cabinet, better known as Blas Urrea, under which pseudonym he has written forceful articles on the Mexican situation, has a clear and analytical account of the religious question in Mexico. He takes the situation of the church back to the reform laws of 1860, which stripped it of its temporal power, and traces from this period the growth of the present attitude of the Catholic clergy towards the government. Too much attention has been paid, he argues, to the abuses and excesses of the church, which he holds to be only the consequences of the conditions in which the church placed itself by taking an active part in the struggle against the new constitutionalism.

The leading article in "The Catholic World" for July is "Black Robes and Brown in California," by Zacheus Joseph Maher, S.J. This tells in an interesting way of the work of the Jesuit fathers, Salvatierra and Kino, who, about 1680, set in motion the vast mission system which for a century and a half crept steadily northward from lower California. Especial attention is paid to the work of the friars in organizing and partially civilizing the Indians of this region who were evidently of a peculiarly repulsive type.

"The British Review" for July contains Prof. J. Gabrys' lecture on the Polish question, delivered before the Paris Sociological Society. This not unbiassed account of the "magnanimous act of justice to unhappy Poland, a fitting act of reparation on the part of noble Russia," deals with the attitude of the parties in Poland towards the manifesto of Grand Duke Nicolas, and its reception by Russian Poland. Professor Gabrys states that on the whole the loyalty of the people to Russia is most evident. The manifesto was satisfactory to the parties of the Right and Center, but not to the Left. The latter demand the absolute independence of Poland. Much attention is paid in this lecture to the historical background of the present situation.

The flood of periodical war literature shows no sign of decrease. It is absolutely impossible even to notice all that has been written on this subject, as many magazines are wholly devoted to articles on various aspects of the conflict. Some of the best general accounts in the recent issues are: F. H. Simond's, "The War's Prospects After One Year's Fighting," in the August "Review of Reviews," which emphasizes the marked achievement of Germany on land and her no less marked defeat on the seas, as well as her remarkable mobilization, not only of her troops, but of every detail of her national life and industry; C. F. Spears' statistical estimate of the cost of the war during this first year, in the same periodical; the essay by Prince Eugene Troubetzky, formerly professor of law in the University of Moscow, on the underlying unity of the present discord, which is in the "Hibbert Journal" for July, and which is a defense of all warfare, as an elevator of souls—individual as well as national—and as a source of renewed keenness of perception and clearness of insight which more than counteract the evil coming from such struggle; "A Year of War, a Military Review," in the "Outlook" for August 4th, one of the best short summaries; Charles Vale's "United States and the War" in the August "Forum"; James D. Whelpley's most interesting sketch of "The Pacific Coast and the War," in which he emphasizes the general vagueness of feeling among the German element in the west and their universal desire for peace; the most sympathetic sketch of General von Hindenberg in the August "Atlantic" by W. C. Dreher, Berlin representative of the Associated Press, and well known as a writer on various German topics; the sketches in the August "Review of Reviews"; Freeman's Enver Pasha, of interest to those who are following the Turkish situation; and Milton's able defense of Mr. Bryan's resignation; the "silhouette" of Grand Duke Nicolas, in the "Correspondant" of June 25; the sketch of the Lusitania disaster in the "Deutsche Revue" for June, which defends the action of Germany on the ground that if the munitions on board the vessel had not been destroyed, it would have meant the loss of a greater number of Germans; and Hendrick Wilhelm von Loon's "No. 45,637 Missing" in the August "Century," a remarkably sympathetic sketch of the opening days of the war, and possibly better history than fiction.

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- Anderson, D. R., editor. The letters of Col. W. Woodford, Col. Robert Howe, and Gen. Charles Lee to Edmund Pendleton, president of the Virginia Convention. Richmond, Va.: Richmond Coll. 163 pp. \$1.00.
- Becker, Carl L. Beginnings of the American people. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co. 279 pp. \$1.75, net.
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- Gould, Clarence P. Money and transportation in Maryland, 1720-1765. Balto.: Johns Hopkins Press. 176 pp. 75 cents.
- Gregg, Frank M. The founding of a nation; the story of the Pilgrim fathers [etc.]. In 2 vols. Cleveland, O.: A. H. Clark Co. (4 pp. bibl.). \$7.50.
- Hamilton, William D. Recollections of a cavalryman of the civil war. Columbus, O.: [the author, 87 E. Fourth Ave.]. 305 pp. \$2.00.
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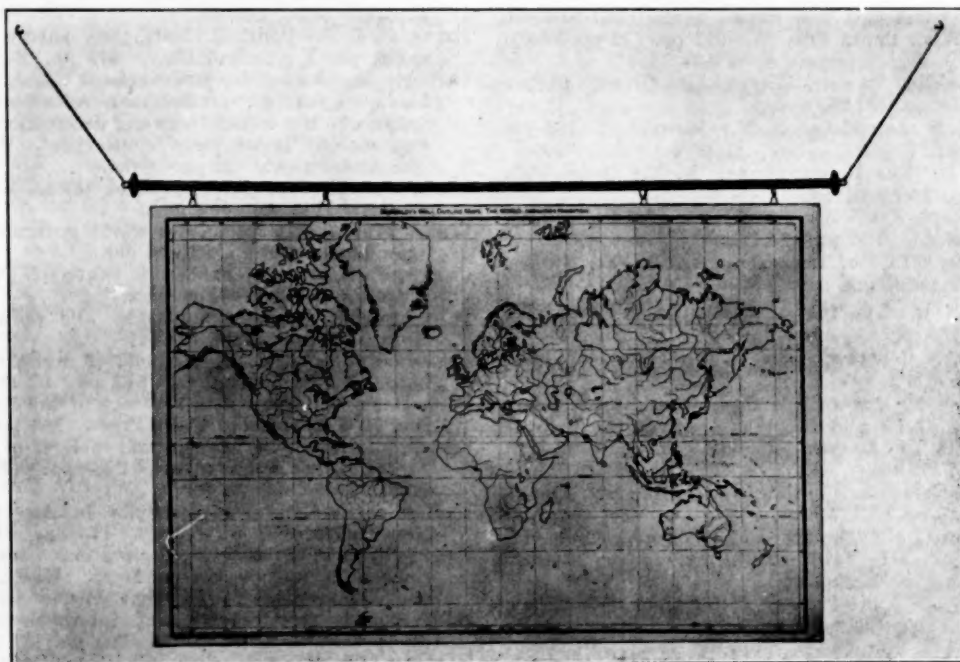
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